

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADER BEHAVIORS AND
CHARACTERISTICS AND SCHOOL CULTURE

By

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This dissertation is dedicated to my family. To my husband, Ian, thank you for your willingness to live apart from us--often in cramped quarters--while I pursued my degree. Thank you for your tolerance of seeing the girls and me so rarely, and for supporting my ups and downs throughout the program. To my daughters, Tara and Kimberley, you have been my life and my reality check. You have constantly reminded me of what is really important to me as well as why I chose to pursue this degree. As always, it is for the children.

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The purpose of this study was to explore how specific leadership behaviors and characteristics of principals impact the development of a positive school culture and how those behaviors and characteristics are perceived by teachers. The assumption in this study was that principals who demonstrated high levels of leadership behaviors and characteristics would be more likely to encourage a positive culture within their schools. Positive school cultures were then expected to enhance learning among the teachers and students through increased professional motivation.

This study utilized a multiple regression analysis to explore which scales of The Leadership Profile (TLP) influenced school culture as assessed by a school culture questionnaire titled CRC Survey Measures of Teachers' Professional Community, Commitment, and Instructional Adaptation (CRC). A dependent *t* test was also completed to check for agreement of scoring on the TLP between each principal and the

teachers from the same school. Finally, differences between elementary and secondary schools were evaluated to assess whether school level influenced teacher preferences regarding leader behavior.

The findings showed that elementary schools had stronger cultures when principals were rated highly on the visionary leadership and principle-centered leadership scales of the TLP. Secondary schools, by contrast, had stronger school cultures when principals were rated highly on the capable management scale of the TLP. Principals rated themselves more highly on the TLP than teachers did for every scale. With the exception of principal-teacher discrepancies on the caring leadership scale of the TLP, these differences in rating did not change the analysis. Accounting for discrepancies on the caring leadership scale, results indicated that greater divergence between teacher and principal scores was associated with poorer culture scores on the CRC.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

The environment of the workplace is changing, and employees are expecting their leaders to be less managerial and more facilitative. Because leadership is contextual it is therefore situational, involving the collective body of not only the leader, but also of those people being led (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996; Heslep, 1997). Social, political, economic, and technological forces help to develop the context of a situation and flavor the opinions of followers. At any given time the components of context can change, which in turn will alter the viewpoints of a leader's followers (Heslep, 1997).

The history of leadership practice in education is similar to leadership practice in the business sector (Marshall, Patterson, Rogers, & Steele 1996). Historically, top-down hierarchical management has been the primary focus, and schools as well as businesses have traditionally considered fairness to be the equal application of laws and policies regardless of individual needs. Leaders have professed a value-neutral and apolitical philosophy. Administrators have strived to be proper, serious, impersonal, and detached. They have utilized communications that are formal, controlled, unidirectional, and from the top. Finally, traditional leaders have had organizational boundaries that are tightly controlled.

Many leaders continue to practice in a top-down hierarchical fashion typical of traditional thinking. However, according to Marshall et al. (1996), most leaders draw

from multiple leadership styles and recognize that the ethic of caring has becoming increasingly important in molding professional, autonomous teachers. Verdugo, Greenberg, Henderson, Uribe, & Schneider (1997) report that there is a lack of agreement among researchers as to whether or not there is one best leadership style. They contend that it is not necessary to have any particular leadership style as long as the style of the leader matches the expectations of the employee. Hersey, et al. (1996) report similar findings in their situational leadership studies.

Others have suggested that when teachers feel they are being treated professionally and they validate the principal's actions they will be satisfied with their leader's performance even if they are not in complete agreement all of the time (Blase & Blase, 1994; Macmillan, 1996). Verdugo, et al. (1997) states, "Teachers working in bureaucratic regimes might also be satisfied with their jobs, but only when they legitimize that regime" (p. 45). Therefore, principals may be able to increase the quality of education in their particular school if they become attuned to what the teachers' expectations are. Then the principals can match their styles to the needs of the teachers (Verdugo, et al., 1997).

In the 1980s the bureaucratic structure typical of most schools was found to be an ineffective means for creating quality schools. Researchers noticed that quality schools functioned more like communities than hierarchies (Blase & Blase, 1994; Giroux, 1992; Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Ledbetter, 1994; McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993; Sergiovanni, 1993). Consensus, teacher involvement and influence on the work environment, collegiality, and administrative support for experimentation and innovation were characteristic practices within quality schools. Researchers began to observe that in order

for effective restructuring efforts to occur, significant attention would need to focus on the culture of the school (a'Campo, 1993; Blase & Blase, 1994; Deal, 1993; Deal & Peterson, 1993; Maehr & Buck, 1993; Marshall, et al., 1996; Peterson, 1988; Reitzug & Reeves, 1992; Verdugo, et al., 1997).

Just as many business leaders are considering the culture of their organization as a vehicle for improved productivity, many principals are looking toward shaping school culture as a way of enhancing school improvement. They are pursuing more facilitative ways of bringing about academic improvement in student learning. Deal and Peterson (1993) describe culture as the character of the school, its deep themes, patterns of core values, common beliefs, and traditions that are developed over time. Through the development of a positive, cohesive school culture, educational leaders expect to inspire teachers to incorporate into their classrooms higher-level student goals, as well as the necessary teaching strategies to meet those goals.

Researchers have found that the culture of a school is related to student outcomes (Blase & Blase, 1994; Deal, 1993; Lieberman, 1994; Maehr & Buck, 1993; McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993). Given that connection, it is logical to question how school culture may be strengthened in such a way that teachers are better motivated to facilitate learning in the classroom. Educational researchers agree that, as the leaders of individual schools, principals impact the school's culture (Blase, 1994; Deal & Peterson, 1993; Sashkin, Rosenbach, & Sashkin, 1997; Sashkin & Sashkin, 1993; Sergiovanni 1993). Specific leadership traits continue to be studied so that principals and other leaders can strive for a more complete understanding of how to mold a positive culture within their schools for the ultimate gain in school improvement.

Statement of the Problem

Public school education is increasingly being attacked by the general population and businesses in particular who claim that high school graduates do not have the necessary skills to be productive workers. Citizens have been calling upon schools to reform education for decades so that graduating seniors will be more literate, more adept at everyday mathematical calculations and reasoning, and more capable of working with fellow employees. Educators involved with school reform research have found that the culture of a school impacts how new standards, goals, and methods are incorporated by teachers into their classrooms (Blase & Blase, 1994; Deal, 1993; Lieberman, 1994; Maehr & Buck, 1993; McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993). The problem is that there is no conclusive evidence regarding what actions principals can take to shape a school's culture into one which will encourage teachers to incorporate higher standards and reform methods into their classrooms.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore how specific leadership behaviors and characteristics relate to the development of a positive school culture and how those behaviors and characteristics were perceived by teachers. The following research questions were addressed.

1. Are there specific characteristics or behaviors of principals that are associated with a positive school culture?

2. To what extent does the variation between principal and teacher opinions regarding what constitutes effective leadership effect the principal's ability to shape school culture?

3. Is there a difference between the perceptions of elementary and secondary school teachers regarding effective leadership behaviors and characteristics?

Hypotheses

Three hypotheses provided the bases for this study.

1. Specific characteristics and behaviors of principals affect school culture.
2. The level of agreement between principals and teachers regarding effective school leadership will vary. This variation will impact the principal's ability to shape the culture of his or her school.
3. There is a difference between the leadership characteristics and behaviors that are perceived to be effective by secondary teachers versus elementary teachers.

Rationale for Hypotheses

In her dissertation, Ott (1993) recommends that more research was needed in the area of organizational culture as it applies specifically to schools. She also states that a limitation of her study was that culture was defined exclusively by the leader. In contrast, Johnson's (1991) has considered only the teacher's view of leader behaviors and school climate. Although her findings showed an overall correlation between leader behaviors and school climate, the leader piece is missing. Reed (1989) suggests that more inquiry into principal perceptions of their leadership roles is necessary. The present study utilized

questionnaires to gather information from teachers as well as principals to more fully assess leadership traits and their relation to school culture.

Sashkin and Sashkin (1993) contend that although there has been progress in understanding the role of leaders in developing school culture, there remains a need for quantitative justification of a causal relationship between leadership traits and organizational culture building. Lashway reports in The National Association of Elementary School Principals' 1997-1998 Winter publication, Research Roundup, that "Measurements of leadership can provide valuable information not available from informal interviews, observations, or intuition" (p.1).

Based on a study of teachers' perceptions of school leaders, Blase (1989) cautions that his open-ended qualitative findings cannot demonstrate the accuracy of the teacher's perceptions in comparison with the principal's perceptions regarding effective strategies used by principals.

Macmillan (1996) has reported that a new principal's acceptance into the school's existing culture was dependent upon how closely the principal's actions matched the teacher's expectations. The present study helped to quantify which leadership traits are deemed effective by both principals and teachers, and which principal behaviors and characteristics impact school culture.

Operational Definition of Variables

To provide clarity, the following terms are defined.

Transactional leadership refers to the everyday managerial tasks of a leader.

Transactional activities are organizational in nature. They involve immediate, adaptable

transactions between leaders and followers rather than long-term evolutions (Burns, 1978).

Transformational leadership refers to value-laden tasks which help the growth of the organization and employees. They involve intellectual pursuits such as developing a vision for the organization's future, and inspiring people to work at their top capacities (Burns, 1978).

Culture refers to the underlying norms, values, beliefs, way of doing things in an organization. Culture is demonstrated through rituals, ceremonies, stories, and the cultural network (Deal, 1993).

Positive school culture emphasizes an attitude among school employees. Positive school cultures demonstrate relationships which encourage shared values that are beneficial to the school as a whole. Teachers and others help rather than hinder one another, and there is an aura of calm satisfaction that is felt upon entering the school (McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993).

The following definitions are summarized from Rosenbach, Sashkin, and Harburg's (1996) booklet The Leadership Profile: On becoming a better leader.

Capable management (Scale 1) is part of the transactional leadership group of scales. Capable management refers to how well the leader attends to administrative tasks which are important for smooth daily organizational functioning.

Reward equity (Scale 2) concerns how well a leader expresses clarity of goals, discovers employee motivations, and delivers on promised rewards. Reward equity is part of the transactional leadership group of scales.

Communications leadership (Scale 3) is shown through active listening and openness as the leader gives and receives feedback. This process is utilized to provide clear direction for others through communication. Communications leadership is part of the transformational leadership behavior group of scales.

Credible leadership (Scale 4) is the way leaders gain trust among followers. Leaders gain credibility from their followers through consistency between their words and actions. Credible leadership is part of the transformational leadership behavior group of scales.

Caring leadership (Scale 5) is evidenced by personalizing relationships with employees and demonstrating respect and concern. Differences among people are valued and emphasized by the leader. Caring leadership is part of the transformational leadership behavior group of scales.

Creative leadership (Scale 6) involves providing opportunities for staff to take on challenges in which they are certain to succeed. The leader provides necessary resources with a focus on what can be accomplished instead of the possibility of failure. Creative leadership is part of the transformational leadership behavior group of scales.

Confident leadership (Scale 7) is demonstrated by leaders who believe they can make a difference in the workplace. This belief gives leaders the capacity to put forth the extra effort and time necessary to strive for success. Confident leadership is part of the transformational leadership characteristics group of scales.

Follower-centered leadership (Scale 8) strives for increased levels of power to be used in ways that benefit the organization as a whole. The purpose of having more power is so that leaders can give it away to the followers. They can then actively work toward

the organization's goals. Follower-centered leadership is part of the transformational leadership characteristics group of scales.

Visionary leadership (Scale 9) involves the ability to think through events and plan for a decade or more into the future. Followers are involved in visioning. Unlike intuition, visionary leaders postulate different possible outcomes in preparation for long term consequences. Visionary leadership is part of the transformational leadership characteristics group of scales.

Principle-centered leadership (Scale 10) is demonstrated by the extent to which the leader maintains a supportive work culture through molding shared values and beliefs. This scale encompasses achieving the requirements of all successful organizations such as changing flexibly, developing teamwork, and creating consensus regarding the organization's guiding values and beliefs. Principle-centered leadership is part of the transformational leadership characteristics group of scales.

Significance of the Study

This study explored which scales of the TLP correlated with school culture at both the elementary and secondary levels. Educators will be able to utilize the findings to better understand which leadership attributes to focus on when developing a school culture that encourages school reform efforts. This project reinforced the work of Halpin (1966), Johnson (1991), Ott (1993), and Sashkin and Sashkin (1993) by providing further quantitative analysis of information obtained from principals and teachers to discover how principals build positive cultures within their schools.

This study added to the body of knowledge regarding which leadership functions principals should attend to when shaping their school cultures. Leithwood and Jantzi (1990) note that there has been little attention given to the specifics involved in school culture building. This study also provided information about the possibly differing needs of elementary schools compared to secondary schools. Finally, this study presented any differences found between schools where teacher and principal beliefs about leader behaviors and characteristics were aligned versus those schools where teachers and principals disagreed about their leader's strengths and weaknesses.

Delimitations and Limitations

This study was delimited and limited by the following factors and conditions.

Delimitations

1. The sample is limited to principals and teachers in the state of Florida.

Caution should be used when attempting to interpret the findings even within the state of Florida given the number of respondents.

2. The data were gathered at one point in time. Because the data were collected in the late fall, there was no allowance for possible changes in opinion that may have occurred as the school year progressed.

3. This study does not encompass all individuals that create a school's culture. Although the culture questionnaire was completed by various teaching professionals including aids, itinerant teachers, and substitute teachers, other staff such as office workers, cafeteria workers, and custodians were not included in the data collection.

Limitations

1. Qualitative depth was sacrificed for quantitative generalizability. There was no attempt to elicit rationales for participants' responses. Also, there was no provision for utilizing notes of explanation volunteered by participants.

2. This study did not control for school size or leader gender. School size ranged from under 15 teachers to over 100 teachers, even in some elementary schools. There may be a difference in perceived leader strengths due to school size that was missed. Also, there was no attempt to consider the impact of leader gender on the results.

Summary

In order for schools to improve to an acceptable level as judged by the communities and businesses that employ their students, it is important that leaders find ways to increase academic productivity. Being the leaders of schools, principals are charged with modifying their own current practices for the purpose of encouraging their teachers to utilize successful methods of instruction with their students. Also, principals must consider the professional growth of teachers and become more collaborative if they hope to encourage alignment of values within the school. Developing shared values for organizational growth may differ based upon school level so it is important to consider whether there are specific leadership behaviors and characteristics that are more effective at the elementary versus secondary levels.

Chapter 2 provides detailed information about each independent variable. The dependent variable of school culture is also discussed, and there is an exploration of

teacher perceptions of leader behaviors. This review of the literature provides support for further development of an explanation regarding how leaders might increase certain leadership attributes for the purpose of developing a stronger, more positive school culture.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore how specific leadership behaviors and characteristics of principals impact the development of a positive school culture and how those behaviors and characteristics are perceived by teachers. The assumption in this study was that principals who demonstrate high levels of leadership behaviors and characteristics will be more likely to encourage a positive culture within their schools. Positive school cultures were then expected to enhance learning among the teachers and students through increased professional motivation.

Principals were also expected to be judged by the teachers and other employees within their schools. If the existing school culture were strong, principals whose behaviors fit within the existing teacher's culture were likely to be perceived as more effective leaders by the staff of the school (Macmillan, 1996). In the case of a weak or negative school culture, teachers were likely to perceive the principal in different ways based upon their expectations of what leadership should be (Verdugo et al., 1997).

This chapter will (a) describe the components of transactional leadership; (b) describe the components of transformational leadership behaviors; (c) describe the components of transformational leadership characteristics; (d) provide an overview of the

research on school culture; and (e) provide an overview of the research on teachers' perceptions of school leadership.

Transactional Leadership

In this section, research addressing the two components of Sashkin and Rosenbach's (1995) Transactional Leadership subcategory (TL Cluster) is presented. Elements of capable management and reward equity are found throughout the literature. Burns (1978) describes transactional leadership such that "... leader and follower [are] exchanging gratifications in a political marketplace" (p. 258). Leaders discover the motivations of followers and appeal to those motivations in an effort to influence their actions. Transactional leadership according to Burns is focused on short term immediate goals with an emphasis on quick adaptability rather than long term change. The extent to which these behaviors are exhibited by leaders gives one an impression of the leader's effectiveness.

Capable Management

Capable management refers to how well the leader attends to administrative tasks which are important for smooth daily organizational functioning. This component is established in the literature as the one area which is strictly transactional in nature (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Burns, 1978; Silins, 1992). Capable management can be compared to a style of leading that Bass refers to as management-by-exception. Leaders are concerned with daily tasks rather than with leading their employees, and only intervene when there

is a problem. In the field of education, principals would consider their roles to be organizers and providers of resources in an effort to maintain the status quo.

There are varying philosophical viewpoints regarding capable management and its place in leadership, but most people will agree that management activities are important in a successful organization just as are transformational leadership attributes (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Burns, 1978; Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Leithwood, 1994). Bass and Avolio (1989) report that recent studies demonstrate two levels of management-by-exception where there used to be just one. One level has an “active factor” which indicates that the leader looks for problems to fix among followers while not attempting to make organizational changes. The other level has a “passive factor” which indicates that the leader does not search for problems to improve, but deals with them only when they arise naturally. In either case, the leader handles organizational problems in a disciplinary manner after standards have not been met rather than seeking preventative change (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Johnston, 1996; Silins, 1992). This leadership style may at times be appropriate. Hajnal, Walker, and Sackney (1998) report that when teacher commitment is high, little direct leadership may be required. Hersey, et al. (1996) also believe that employees who display high levels of ability and readiness to use their ability require very little direct leadership. The principal’s ability to maintain a smoothly running school shows the extent to which the leader practices capable management.

Reward Equity

Reward equity concerns how well a leader expresses clarity of goals, discovers employee motivations, and delivers on promised rewards. The underlying ideology of

reward equity is transactional in nature because it assumes that workers are motivated by extrinsic rewards rather than intrinsic professional or personal growth (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Burns, 1978; Johnston, 1996; Silins, 1992). Leaders are responsible for deciding what motivates individuals in their organization so that the rewards given are meaningful. As a transactional leadership tool, rewards are utilized to gain compliance with leader-developed goals. There is a belief that principals and teachers have a different stake in the school and that an exchange of rewards will satisfy teachers enough to comply with principal requests (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Johnston, 1996; Silins, 1992).

Based on a study of Bass' model of transactional and transformational leadership, Silins(1992) reports that his "reward scale," although transactional by definition, correlates positively with the transformational scales as well. In some capacities, rewards take on symbolic meaning which would be considered transformational. Reward equity, then, appears to be contextual in nature. Depending upon whether rewards are given to encourage compliance or growth, they may be considered transactional or transformational.

Johnston (1996) discusses the possibility that with current trends in organizational downsizing and incorporation of more transient employees, transactional leadership may remain at the forefront of leadership practices. Transformational and cultural leadership practices require people to remain in positions long enough to develop trust and bonding; if there is not enough time for bonding, then transactional exchanges will continue to be common occurrences. Effective leaders need to continue to directly clarify organizational goals and assignments, and reward employees for compliance (Silins, 1992). The

principal's ability to establish clear goals and reward teachers for attaining those goals shows the extent to which the leader practices reward equity.

Transformational Leadership Behaviors

In this section, research addressing the four components of Sashkin and Rosenbach's (1995) Transformational Leadership Behaviors subcategory (TLB Cluster) is presented. Elements of communication leadership, credible leadership, caring leadership, and creative leadership are found throughout the literature. The extent to which these behaviors are exhibited by leaders shows the strength of the leader's positive behaviors.

Transformational leadership is a specific way that some principals choose to transform their school culture. Burns (1978) writes of leaders who utilize creative and analytic intellectualism to transform their followers. This type of leadership assumes that leadership only manifests itself in the context of change or crisis. The nature of that change or crisis is a crucial determinant of the forms of leadership that will prove to be helpful. Proponents of transformational leadership also believe that school leadership restructuring will dominate the change agenda for school leaders for some time to come (Blase & Blase, 1994; Giroux, 1992; Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Leithwood, 1994; Lieberman, 1994).

There are six primary dimensions in transformational leadership. The leader must first identify and articulate a vision. Once a vision has been established it is important to foster the acceptance of group goals. Conveying high-performance expectations is another important aspect of transformational leadership. The principal's duty is to provide appropriate models for the teachers to follow. Providing intellectual stimulation and

individualized support for employees are two more critical pieces of the transformational leadership puzzle. Two other dimensions that are sometimes added are contingent rewards and management-by-exception which have been presented in the transactional leadership section (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Leithwood, 1994).

To become a transformational leader, strategies are necessary for building commitment rather than control (Greenleaf, 1977; Leithwood, 1994). The principal helps to demonstrate the purposes for change and refinement. First-order structural changes are accompanied by second-order changes which involve developing a shared vision, creating a productive work culture, and distributing leadership to others. Teachers' perceptions of the school culture, programs and goals are a few of the critical elements involved in explaining the variations in the success of school restructuring, and are important to transformational leaders. Also, principals who practice transformational leadership use a more democratic style of leadership than in other professions where transactional leadership may be more appropriate (Bates, 1987; Blase & Blase, 1994; Giroux, 1992; Leithwood, 1994).

Communication Leadership

Communication leadership concerns how leaders utilize interpersonal skills to help people understand the meaning behind their actions. Symbolic leadership is a hidden dimension of communication in educational leadership that helps to provide clarity of purpose for faculty and staff (Reitzug & Reeves, 1992). Principals provide contextual clarity in symbolic ways such as sharing specific stories, myths, and sagas. They call upon organizational members to relate these stories to newcomers and the

community as well to help shape an accepted understanding of the school norms. Other symbolic gestures are refinement of ceremonies, rituals, and traditions. Principals who focus on commitment, motivation, and efficacy of teachers and students find an increased sense of shared values (Deal, 1993; Peterson, 1988).

Listening is a primary communicative skill that builds trust in oneself and strength in others (Blase & Blase, 1994; Covey, 1989; Giroux, 1992; Greenleaf, 1977; Robinson, 1996; Senge, 1990). The silence involved in listening promotes dialogue between administrators, teachers, and students which in turn builds continuity of ideas and trust in one another (Blase & Blase, 1994; Bohm, 1990; Giroux, 1992; Greenleaf, 1977; Sergiovanni, 1993). These communicative skills are a prerequisite to effective collaboration between principals and the rest of the school community.

Bohm (1990) describes “dialogue” as a “stream of meaning” which flows through a group of people as they talk about ideas. This is a creative process consisting of active reflection on the part of the members so that in the end the group finds deeper “shared meaning.” The people involved in this type of communication have a fuller understanding of themselves and each other. As dialogue becomes a primary communicative method for decision-making, ideas which stress commitment to the school as a whole are generated by both the principal and employees. This process encourages the shared values necessary to gain vital faculty support for the implementation of decisions (Deal, 1993; Senge, 1990).

Credible Leadership

"Only in the modern world do we think excellence in such practical matters as planning, motivating, and managing budgets are not moral demands" (Green, 1987, p. 110). Professional ethics is a redundancy, not an oxymoron.

Consistent ethical behavior of the leader fosters trust in the employee which in turn brings credibility to the leader. Leaders integrate ethical behavior into their work worlds continuously by way of consistently emphasizing actions that are important to them (Green, 1987; Greenleaf, 1977; Marshal, 1988; Sergiovanni, 1993; Senge, 1990). These leaders capitalize on communication to bring about an open, comfortable school environment which in turn brings credibility to them as leaders.

As principals focus on issues related to student growth and achievement rather than to issues that benefit administrators, teachers, political groups, or economic interests, stakeholders will trust that the leader is acting from an ethically sound purpose (Heslep, 1997). Touring the school building and generally staying visible are symbolic examples of how principals build credibility with their teachers. Leaders who interact more with their faculty find that their values grow more closely aligned. As the faculty becomes better able to predict the principal's actions, they assign a higher level of credibility to their leader. What principals spend their time on and pay attention to either reinforces people's thoughts about them and the school or changes them (Macmillan, 1996; Peterson, 1988; Schein, 1992).

Sergiovanni (1993) stresses the need for morally-based decision-making. Morally-based actions are more consistent and therefore credible because they come from within the principal rather than without. Historically, transactional emphases of leadership

reduce discretion, and without discretion one cannot lead. There is no formula for ethical or moral leadership; it is purely situational, flexible, responsive, and attentive to the holistic concerns of the community (Giroux, 1992; Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996; Lieberman, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1993). Credible leaders mold their groups through consistently displaying high ideals while remaining open to situational factors.

Caring Leadership

An ethic of caring is needed if schools are to nurture children to be moral, caring, productive members of society. Caring people consider the context of situations and the impact of their decisions on others (Giroux, 1992; Greenleaf, 1977; Marshall, et al., 1996). Educational leaders must be committed to utilizing means of moral value for students and staff to nurture knowledge, freedom, purposefulness, and deliberation (Giroux, 1992; Green, 1987; Heslep, 1997). "Where there is not community, trust, respect, and ethical behavior are difficult for the young to learn and for the old to maintain" (Greenleaf, 1977, pp.38-39).

Sacred authority and emotion are becoming accepted traits that embrace purposing and building of shared-values in an effort to display an ethic of caring (Sergiovanni, 1993). In schools that purpose is to enhance learning because educators care that the students learn. As teachers and staff use dialogue to renew the purpose of their work, their values should become more aligned with one another so that they become shared values which can be imparted upon the students (Blase & Blase, 1994; Bohm, 1990; Giroux, 1992; Greenleaf, 1977; Senge, 1990; Sergiovanni, 1993).

Sacred authority refers to the faith a leader has in the authority of the professional community and of its norms and ideals (Sergiovanni, 1993). Growth of the professional community within schools has been demonstrated to have an effect on the improvement of student learning (McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993). Effective leaders capitalize on the existing positive norms and values to continually restate and renew the purpose of the organization (Green, 1987). They demonstrate respect and concern for the opinions of their faculty and staff which prepares the school community for effective collaboration.

Preserving the professional authority of teachers along with encouraging moral authority values combine to demonstrate a high level of caring on the part of the principal (Blase & Blase, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1993). Professional authority stresses that there is no one best way to teach, that professional knowledge is created through practice and experience, and that context and the teacher's inner-self influence teaching. Moral authority contends that schools are learning communities, defined by shared values, that what is right is as important as what is effective, that emotion is a motivator, and that collegiality is a form of professional virtue. The key is trust, and virtue accompanies that trust (a'Campo, 1993; Blase & Blase, 1994; Covey, 1989; Macmillan, 1996; Marshall, et al., 1996; Miskel, 1977; Robinson, 1996; Sashkin, 1993; Sashkin & Sashkin, 1993; Sergiovanni, 1993).

Creative Leadership

Principals who model risk-taking, reflection, and learning from failure are leading creatively. Furthermore, they tend to recruit and employ teachers who are willing to do the same. Modeling self-evaluation by the principal encouraged the teachers to try it

themselves in a'Campo's (1993) study. Gaining trust was found to be important for obtaining accurate feedback in the process of self-evaluation. Part of this process involves what Robinson (1996) refers to as the psychological contract. The psychological contract refers to employee's perceptions of what they owe their employers and of what their employers owe them in return.

Although inherently perceptual in nature, these contracts have been important in building and maintaining the levels of trust necessary for the collaborative risk-taking involved in creative leadership. Breaches in the psychological contract undermine teachers' judgments about the leader's integrity as well as their beliefs in general benevolence. Broken promises by employers shatter teachers' trust and cause them to have less investment in the school and therefore in maintaining a collaborative school culture (Robinson, 1996). These teachers will be less likely to accept the risks involved in being creative in the future.

Robinson (1996) also found that prior trust influenced recognition of and interpretation of psychological contract breaches. Employees with high initial trust may have overlooked the breaches and remained open to new ventures; thus continued to be creative. People with low initial trust may have remembered the breaches more clearly or even searched for them. These perceived breaches heightened an already existing level of fear which would inhibit willingness to volunteer to help with school goals. The implications of Robinson's study suggest that leaders who develop trust early on in their relationships with employees may inoculate themselves to hard feelings when events do not turn out as the teachers expected. The principal's ability to creatively work toward

the school's mission is related to how comfortable employees feel about their leader's intentions.

Transformational Leadership Characteristics

In this section, research addressing the four components of Sashkin and Rosenbach's (1995) Transformational Leadership Characteristics subcategory (TLC Cluster) is presented. Elements of confident leadership, follower-centered leadership, visionary leadership, and principle-centered leadership are found throughout the literature. The extent to which these behaviors are exhibited by leaders shows the strength of the leader's inner character.

Confident Leadership

Confident people believe they can make a difference. The theory underlying this concept of self-efficacy has been widely studied by Bandura (1982) in the field of psychology. High levels of perceived self-efficacy provides individuals with the capacity to put forth the extra effort and time necessary to achieve success. Bandura (1982) reports that it is judgments regarding self-efficacy that determine which activities people choose to be involved with as well as the amount of effort expended when obstacles arise. Bandura reports that perceived self-efficacy is a better predictor of future actions than current success with the given activity. Although repeated success at a task tends to increase people's beliefs that they are competent, it is the belief of ability rather than the success itself that is the predictor of future engagement in the same activity.

Licklider and Niska (1993) completed a study based partly on Bandura's work involving staff development for principals. One piece of the staff development was to increase principal's self-efficacy in coaching teachers who are using cooperative learning. Before and after 20 weeks of training, principals from the training sessions were compared with other principals from a control group. Before training, teachers rated the two groups equally. After training, teachers rated the trained principals significantly higher than the control group in all areas. Principals also rated themselves before and after training. After training, they showed a statistically significant difference in all areas including sense of efficacy. Licklider and Niska were encouraged by the principals' new-found self-efficacy regarding supervision of cooperative learning because it indicated a future propensity for successful coaching of teachers by principals.

Jorde-Bloom and Ford's (1988) study attempted to discover differences between principals who readily adopt the use of computers in their schools and those who are reticent about computer use in schools. They considered administrative uses of computers separately from instructional uses. Principals' levels of self-efficacy regarding computers was one of the variables in their study.

The self-efficacy variable was found to have one of the highest statistically significant correlations with regard to administrative uses in Jorde-Bloom and Ford's (1988) study. Self-efficacy had the highest correlation with instructional uses. The fact that principals rating high in computer self-efficacy also tended to use them more is consistent with Bandura's (1982) theory of self-efficacy.

Other self-efficacy studies have been completed in the areas of vocational selection and training which support the importance of self-efficacy in an individual's

chosen field. Lent, Larkin, and Brown (1989) conducted a study on college science and engineering students to explore the relation between self-efficacy and career interests. They found a moderate correlation between self-efficacy and career choice. Lent and Larkin reported that although vocational interest may be a greater determinant of career choice, self-efficacy is a better predictor of success and persistence in the workplace.

Pond and Hay (1989) conducted a study which explored how job applicants' self-efficacy impacted their reaction to realistic job previews (i.e., difficult as well as good aspects of the job) and performance assessments. The realistic job previews were found to correlate positively with people who had generally high self-efficacy. Those participants did better on job performance task assessments. Participants with low self-efficacy did worse. Pond and Hay reported that hearing about the difficult aspects of a prospective job encouraged people with high self-efficacy to work harder and low self-efficacy to put forth less effort.

Confident leaders exhibit high levels of self-efficacy. Their belief in their own abilities as leaders helps them to accept obstacles as challenges which otherwise might be considered insurmountable. In accordance with Bandura's (1982) theory of self-efficacy, confident principals work harder to fulfill their leadership missions because they believe that they can.

Follower-centered Leadership

Educational leadership is a skill requiring practice and reflection. Follower-centered leadership emphasizes that the leader's power be used in ways that benefit the organization and employees rather than the leader. Follower-centered leadership, with its

self-sacrificing nature is sometimes referred to as moral leadership (Green, 1987; Greenleaf, 1977; Sergiovanni, 1993). Some people become leaders because they want power or possessions. The follower-centered leader wants to serve others to encourage professional growth among followers. Greenleaf (1977) calls this "servant leadership." Although principals as servant leaders must have clear goals and be able to articulate them, they must also listen to their employees and focus on serving teacher needs for the benefit of the school.

Principals who are successful in their use of collaboration for decision-making can be considered follower-centered. They usually find that empowering their followers to find solutions to problems brings greater commitment to the solution as well as to the leader. In a study that was designed to explore the role of the principal in fostering collaboration between teachers, a'Campo (1993) examined what strategies influenced teacher motivation and commitment to school improvement. The findings suggest that successful school improvement projects must utilize collaboration to foster a school culture which is dedicated to school improvement. This process requires commitment, time, trust, and a common mission held by teachers and the principal.

Ledbetter (1994) reports similar findings as she explored one school's process of instituting shared decision making. She presents three factors essential to the success of collaboration. First, principals must develop a culture that endorses risk-taking; a concept discussed in the creative leadership section. Second, a leader must empower others by building a supportive community. Finally, the teachers acknowledge how difficult a truly collaborative school culture is. The teachers in her study expressed a need for appropriate collaborative decision-making training. Either the principal or others within the school

who have been trained in consensus-building can offer this type of training through inservices. (Ledbetter, 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990).

Principals play a major role in developing a collaborative environment. They can foster collegiality, modeling, and rewarding collaboration and cooperation. Leaders are part of the larger context encouraging teacher motivation and commitment (a'Campo, 1993; Blase, 1989; Ledbetter, 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). To bring about successful collaborators, the principal must consider the teachers' initial level of motivation and commitment. Researchers have observed that principals typically utilize bureaucratic mechanisms for enhancing collaboration, strengthening of school culture, and shared decision-making (a'Campo, 1993; Ledbetter, 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). Surprisingly few use symbolism or communication strategies.

Empowered decision-making and culture issues contribute the most to teacher collaboration. Involving teachers in shared decision-making helps provide teachers with an increased sense of ownership, which is essential for school improvement (a'Campo, 1993; Blase & Blase, 1994; Ledbetter, 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). When teachers feel that their views are valued, they tend to demonstrate greater levels of motivation and commitment to the school's shared vision. Leithwood and Jantzi (1990) report that leadership strategies to encourage shared decision-making vary. Schools with high initial levels of motivation and commitment did best with indirect leadership strategies whereas schools with low initial levels of motivation and commitment did best with direct leadership strategies.

Shared decision-making does not mean engaging teachers in every decision, but only those which are important to them. Having clear goals helps leaders decide what

issues should involve a consensus among teachers and which are better left to the personal discretion of the school leader. Ledbetter (1994) and Leithwood and Jantzi (1990) have found that teachers are interested in providing input to decisions which involve issues of curriculum and instruction. They want to see the significance of educational benefits to their students before they agree to spend their valuable time building consensus on an issue.

Principals should move slowly when promoting followership through collaboration. Seasoned teachers tend to respond best to encouragement, positive feedback, and a continual emphasis on the expected student benefits gained from collaborative methods (a'Campo, 1993). As new staff are hired, principals should pay close attention to the prospective teacher's readiness to take an active role in the school. At times a principal may also need to request a transfer for a teacher who has shown intent to foil the leader's attempts at power-sharing (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). Use of collaboration is a primary method of follower-centered leadership in schools, and should be encouraged by principals who are interested in the professional growth of their teachers.

Visionary Leadership

An effective leader must have vision; dreams to change the world (a'Campo, 1993; Deal & Peterson, 1993; Giroux, 1992; Green, 1987; Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Leithwood, 1994; Sashkin, 1993; Sashkin & Sashkin, 1993; Sergiovanni, 1993). One of the principal's jobs is to design and make the vision real. Vision, as a cultural ideal, defines shared values which support the functions within the school. Tasks are defined

within the context of the vision that has been created by the principal with all of the members of the school (Sashkin, 1993; Sergiovanni, 1993).

There are three major aspects of visionary leadership. First, leaders are called upon to construct a vision; an ideal image of school and culture. Next, a visionary philosophy should be developed to succinctly state the vision along with the practical programs and policies to ensure its fruition (Sashkin, 1993; Sashkin & Sashkin, 1993). At times it can be difficult to help teachers and staff agree upon the meaning of the vision due to differing background experiences. When this happens it is the leaders responsibility to utilize imagination to connect future visions with the present (Giroux, 1992; Green, 1987; Greenleaf, 1977). Finally, the leaders' own practices will model and support their visions (Sashkin, 1993; Sashkin & Sashkin, 1993). Organizations require a vision in order to change. The leader's responsibility is to promote a shared vision of future possibilities.

Principle-centered Leadership

School success or failure depends on common goals and beliefs about learning and how they guide teachers, administrators, and students. Principle-centered leadership involves how changes are managed so that goals can be achieved. As leaders guide consensus efforts regarding goals and shared values in keeping with the school's vision, they are demonstrating principle-centered leadership (Rosenbach, Sashkin, & Harburg, 1996). These acts work toward shaping the school's culture into one which works for positive change to benefit school improvement.

Changing a school's culture is more than a few superficial modifications; such change must transform that culture's deepest structures. For school reform to be effective the school's culture must be transformed, which means significantly altering employees' actions (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Maehr & Buck, 1993).

Traditional, isolated teachers rarely have reason to change their norms, values and beliefs. To create a collaborative school culture, however, educational leaders must challenge staff with new ways of thinking (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). This means that principals and others must adopt new ways of thinking about educational leadership so that they can find more effective ways of enabling teachers to change (Ledbetter, 1994). A new vision for the school coupled with social pressure from key teachers in the school can help to challenge people's existing beliefs so that they become open to sharing power and responsibility with the leader (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990).

In keeping with principle-centered leadership, principals transform culture in many ways. After deciding which existing values denote quality the principal can reinforce acceptable goals and reshape those that need improvement through daily activities and long-term planning; what may seem mundane to the principal may carry great symbolic weight with the teachers. Transformation through force is not possible (Deal & Peterson, 1993, Greenleaf, 1977); neither is it ethical (Bates, 1987; Reitzug & Reeves, 1992).

To be principle-centered, administrators must be sensitive to the need for modifications based upon context. By providing opportunities for dialogue and modeling critical reflection a principal can empower teachers and promote their own democratic schools. The principal's role then becomes one of communicator, coordinator, facilitator

of mutual problem-solving, and provider of resources for effective work (Blase & Blase, 1994; Giroux, 1992). Given teachers' and students' sensitivity to the management of resources, that too might be an effective method of helping people to understand what is valued in a nonthreatening, facilitative way (Maehr & Buck, 1993).

When administrators and staff are willing, schools can transform their cultures to endorse higher motivation and learning. Principals and teachers are in the best position to change the culture because they are involved in every-day decisions. When decisions stop being made independently of one another and become part of an overall scheme, transformation will take place in a principled fashion. Administrators are called upon to move beyond developing happy teachers to motivating the faculty to motivate the students. Stressing progress and excellence can help people gain confidence; using comparison, hierarchies, and competition can be stifling. Letting go of the idea of principal as personnel director and embracing the concept of leader as engager of staff in the mission of transforming student learning is necessary to turn an ordinary school into one which is exceptional (Maehr & Buck, 1993). Principals who practice effective principled leadership have the skills to create and maintain a system of shared values which transforms the school.

School Culture

Definition of Culture

The definition of culture and how it applies to the field of education has been debated by researchers. This section presents a variety of researchers' beliefs regarding culture in conjunction with schools. Some researchers feel that the study of culture is

purely anthropological in nature and does not apply to school settings which inherently are a blend of many different cultures. Other researchers suggest that each school develops its own culture through the events of the school and beliefs of the staff, and that the principal plays only a minor role in the creation of culture. Still other researchers believe that because principals are the leaders of schools, they mold culture whether they want to or not. People who believe that principals are culture builders claim they must play an active role in molding the culture of their schools for the betterment of the school community.

Culture has been defined in a variety of ways by educational researchers. Generally, culture is value-laden, and dependent upon underlying assumptions of an organization's work norms. Molded on a daily basis, culture can be affected by employees' and leaders' experiences and expectations.

Marshall (1988) defines culture as, "... a process of acculturation, [whereby] people learn the rules of the game, organizational climate, norms, dominant values, and informal structure--the basic pattern of assumptions that make up the culture of an organization" (p. 262).

Schein (1992) suggests that culture is "A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (pp. 224-225).

Within the field of anthropology, culture is defined as a system of ordinary, taken-for-granted meanings and symbols (explicit and implicit) which were learned and shared

by a bounded social group (Erickson, 1987). However, several educational researchers question whether the anthropological definition of culture is appropriate to the school setting (Bates, 1987; Erickson, 1987; Giroux, 1992; Marshall, 1988). They question whether there can be one holistic culture shared by so many people of different backgrounds, and suggest that differential cultures within a school inherently overshadow attempts for a true shared culture.

Erickson (1987) suggests that social structure and political economy are better explanations for the variations in actions, beliefs, and sentiments than the anthropological definition of culture. Bates (1987) points out the complexities of cultural politics within schools in that employees bring a good deal of cultural baggage with them into the schools through their own ideologies and technologies. He believes that negotiation of such conflicts may result in rituals of little educational meaning which may in fact serve to separate the school into further divisions of class, race, gender, age, etc. Reitzug & Reeves (1992) caution leaders to consider manipulative versus nonmanipulative forms of coordinating school culture, emphasizing that morals and ethics must be adhered to when dealing with culture issues.

A good definition of school culture must include an explanation of who's culture, an identification of the type and form of culture, and the degree to which it has influence over the actions of the organizational members (Macmillan, 1996). Deal (1993) suggests that an appropriate definition of culture would address the organization's shared values, heroes, rituals, ceremonies, stories, and the cultural network. In this context, culture would be perceived as a social innovation which gives meaning, stability, certainty, and predictability, and shapes everything inside the school (Deal & Peterson, 1993). One

advantage to identifying a common culture has been suggested by Bates (1987) and Deal (1993). They claim that cohesive cultures can lead to the identification of a common destiny and shared values which contribute positively to attitudes, relations with others and increased skill-building. For the purposes of this study, Deal and Peterson's definition of culture is used because it best matches the context of schools.

Peterson (1988) reports that school cultures vary greatly; some are positive, some are negative. He states that "culture interacts with technical and structural aspects of schools. It affects the nature of human interactions and relations. It shapes political processes and distribution of power and influence" (p.251). Even schools within the same city can have radically different cultures depending upon the backgrounds of the students and teachers. Schools provide more than academic learning; they stress different goals and purposes based upon the needs of the students and teachers who work there. These differences alter the feel, character, and personality of schools (Maehr & Buck, 1993).

The set of norms, values, beliefs, and assumptions about work vary considerably between schools, influencing the entire environment. They shape teachers reactions to change, improvement, and overall survival. The culture affects how teachers feel about what they do (Deal, 1993), how they view in-services and supervision, their tone and content as they talk about teaching practices, and the degree to which principals are allowed to influence curriculum and instruction (Peterson, 1988). Differing cultures may influence how teachers define tasks as well as their level of commitment to the task itself. For example, school culture can influence teachers' willingness to remain at

school after hours, the emotional ties felt to the school, and voluntary agreement to follow established rules and regulations (Deal, 1993).

Halpin and Croft (1962) found six different types of organizational climate in their study of 71 elementary schools. They developed the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) which was used to gauge the feel of each elementary school. The OCDQ assessed a combination of faculty and leader characteristics. Various combinations of characteristics were considered to rate the schools' climates on a continuum from open to closed. As their study progressed, the six different climates presented themselves based upon the principals' characteristics. Halpin, having worked with the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) at Ohio State University, found similarities in some of the leader subcategories between the OCDQ and the LBDQ.

Culture and Schools

Many researchers agree that leadership is important in the shaping of school culture even if the degree of influence is uncertain and few are satisfied with the different aspects of any given culture (a'Campo, 1993; Deal, 1993; Macmillan, 1996; Marshall, 1988; Peterson, 1988; Reitzug & Reeves, 1992; Sashkin, 1993; Sashkin & Sashkin, 1993, Sergiovanni, 1993). Sashkin and Sashkin (1993) suggest that leaders model culture and build values. Deal (1993) and Sashkin and Sashkin (1993) believe that they reweave old traditions and stories into present realities and new visions.

Marshall (1988) believes that leaders have their own culture among fellow administrators which affects their interactions with their school employees. She also observes that the values of the administrative culture influence individual school cultures.

Marshall feels that the quality of communication regarding how language is used is likely to affect educational leaders' ability to maintain control. Giroux (1992) agrees that educational leaders must recognize the bias inherent in their own views in order to develop authentic communication with teachers. Who's culture prevails during decision-making--that of stakeholders within the school, or that of the administration?

Other authors question the motives of leaders who seek to shape culture. Some individuals fear that conscious alteration of school culture may be a violation of teachers' ability to exercise free choice. Reitzug & Reeves (1992) question whether principals are negligent in their responsibility if they do not attempt to exert a positive influence on the culture of the school.

Reitzug and Reeves (1992) describe the impact of manipulation and empowerment in shaping school culture. They define manipulation as an influence or management strategy that lacks straight-forwardness in order to attain personal ends. Empowerment is defined by them as a process of enabling followers to examine and critique their own situations with a view to improving them as educational situations. The implication is that educators have the right to practice within their own professional values and beliefs even as principals send symbolic messages with the intent of molding culture. Leaders remain welcome to offer different ways of thinking as long as they honor teachers' values, beliefs, and professionalism.

Clearly, regardless of one's thoughts on the appropriateness of influencing school culture, the culture of school defines the roles of the people within. Just as children learn components embedded in a "hidden" curriculum, teachers respond to components of school culture whether it is intentionally molded or not. Therefore, when trying to

determine what areas of a school might need improvement, one of the principal's primary tasks should be to focus on analyzing and understanding the existing culture within the school. For this purpose, leaders must be aware of teachers' needs, feelings, perceptions, and attitudes. Understanding the school image is also important so that leaders can know what their own roles are expected to be. Principals' acceptance into their school's culture is based upon how well they interpret the existing culture and how accommodating the culture is to the changes they have in mind (a'Campo, 1993; Deal & Peterson, 1993; Macmillan, 1996; Peterson, 1988).

Shaping School Culture

Several researchers have observed a decline in the number of positive school cultures over the past two decades in situations where criticism and change have been prevalent (Deal, 1993; Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). Change causes people to question the value of their work (Deal, 1993), and criticism has caused some teachers to feel helpless. Other educators have reacted to criticism and change by working minimally, worrying about money, struggling for power, and developing negative attitudes (Bates, 1987; Deal, 1993).

Administrators must use good judgment when shaping school cultures. Schools have the capacity to connect with democratic values and social justice. Administrators must negotiate school culture through educational ideals, rather than relying upon ideals that typify a "corporate culture." If the characteristics within school culture can be used to transform current practices for the betterment of the school, then administrators can move toward collaboration and democracy for all stakeholders (Bates, 1987).

Once the basic culture of a school has been discerned, the principal has many options for how to shape culture. There are five central ways that leaders embed and reinforce culture (Maehr & Buck, 1993; Peterson, 1988; Schein, 1992). What leaders systematically pay attention to, measure, and control is one powerful way of molding culture. Structural forces such as scheduling, hierarchical roles, and administrative systems all demonstrate the principal's values. Principals who are cognizant of this idea are able to use even casual conversation to project the messages they feel are most important.

Secondly, as leaders react to critical incidents and organizational crises their actions serve the purpose of altering the norms, values, and working procedures. Crises bring with them an emotional component that raises anxiety levels to a point where people are more likely to remember what they have learned. Leaders will prioritize their actions based upon what is important to them. In this capacity they are demonstrating their values to others (Maehr & Buck, 1993; Peterson, 1988; Schein, 1992).

Deliberate role modeling, teaching, and coaching constitute the third central way to embed and reinforce culture. Formal training is important, but it is the informal modeling that leaves employees with a more lasting impression. Fourth, the criteria which is used by leaders for allocation of rewards and status is important for successfully building culture. Priorities, values, and assumptions are demonstrated when leaders use rewards and punishments for specific actions (Maehr & Buck, 1993; Peterson, 1988; Schein, 1992).

Finally, the criteria used by leaders for recruitment, selection, promotion, retirement, and excommunication are necessary for successful embedding of culture.

These last mechanisms are subtle because they are typically not discussed overtly, but leaders tend to hire and promote individuals who they believe to be of the same style, values, and beliefs as themselves. As old faculty and staff leave the school and new are hired based upon the leader's values, the principal will more easily be able to mold a shared culture (Maehr & Buck, 1993; Peterson, 1988; Schein, 1992).

Deal & Peterson (1993) suggest five key roles that the principal plays in shaping culture. First, daily behavior that reinforces and molds values demonstrates symbolic leadership. Second, they describe the identification of heroes and heroines as playing the role of a potter. Third, by choosing carefully the words and tones used, principals become poets who shape culture through language. Fourth, principals as actors dramatize values and direct vision while playing many different roles. Fifth, the role of healer is evident as principals oversee and minister to transitions in order to help individuals and groups cope with change. The important part of their message is not which particular values are chosen, but that those chosen are clear and the principal sticks with them over time.

Teachers' Perceptions of School Leadership

Most of what is known about effective school leadership comes from research concerning teachers' perceptions of principal effectiveness. Although it is not fully understood why some people are viewed as leaders, many perceptions are developed inferentially through observing events and their outcomes. For these reasons, teacher perceptions are important in defining effective educational leadership (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996).

In his study, Macmillan (1996) found three underlying features which positively influence teachers' perceptions. First, teachers reported that they desired predictability in their principals. Predictability was described as having clearly defined beliefs, having an open-door policy to indicate availability, being visible at school events, and showing consistency between motives and practices. Second, teachers reported that they preferred leaders who maintain continuity within the school. These principals tend to initiate change slowly while they continue to be reflective and establish trust. After establishing the trust among the faculty, they introduced larger changes. Finally, teachers preferred principals who showed a congruence between practice and culture. Leaders who were congruent considered the school's existing culture and tried to make their changes fit with its context (Macmillan, 1996).

Teachers' ability to gain an accurate perception of the principal is in part influenced by the size of the school, and by the accessibility that the principal allows. Teachers in smaller schools tend to have greater access to principals and therefore are in a better position to accurately judge them than are teachers in larger schools (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Macmillan, 1996). Jantzi and Leithwood add that the tenure of the faculty has an influence, and the better accessibility of smaller schools is more favorable to women and transformational leaders.

Several researchers agree that accessibility and availability are essential to improving positive perceptions of the principal (Blase & Blase, 1994; Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996, Macmillan, 1996, Miskel, 1977). Principals must be available if they are to model shared-values, build cooperation, and team-work. In Jantzi and Leithwood's (1996) study, two out of three important implications deal with the visibility of the

principal. First, that being seen doing good deeds positively influences teacher perception. Second, that visibly contributing to the schools mission, goals, and culture in a way that is helpful to teachers increases their perception of transformational leadership. Third, that unalterable differences such as gender do not necessarily affect leadership style.

The principals' actions must be predictable if they hope to gain teacher acceptance and participation. In large part this is an accessibility issue since teachers must spend time with principals in order to accurately predict behaviors. Macmillan (1996) found that when principals had an open-door policy and were visible in the hallways, teachers felt less need to seek them out in their offices. In his study, the one principal who instituted a closed-door policy found herself with increased appointments and an increased need by teachers to see her.

Teachers value independence and relish in recognition, but still need the principal's support and positive reinforcement for innovations and even maintenance of existing successes (Macmillan, 1996). They seem to want a powerful, wise principal who will protect them and give meaningful praise. The principal becomes symbolic to the teachers and can capitalize on that view to prioritize stories, rituals, and work. In her dissertation, McIntyre (1989) concludes that perceptions of beliefs undergirds the climate of an organization. Leaders who become attuned to what teachers find valuable will be able to influence the organizational culture.

Generally a positive culture brings positive perceptions from teachers (Miskel, 1977). Teachers desire openness in communication, clearly stated beliefs, intellectual stimulation, attention to achievement, confrontations of grumblers before problems fester,

validation, trust, and preservation of their culture (Blase & Blase, 1994, Macmillan, 1996; Miskel, 1977). Modern teachers have come to expect participatory decision-making as a right, not a gift. They want principals to be facilitators and believe that if they expect responsibility they will obtain it (Blase & Blase, 1994).

Research on Leadership Questionnaire

Sashkin and Rosenbach's (1995) The Leadership Profile (TLP) is an updated version of Sashkin's Leader Behavior Questionnaire (LBQ). The LBQ has been more widely used in research, but does not include the transactional leadership scales. Sashkin and Rosenbach changed the name of the instrument when they added the transactional leadership sections to reflect a more encompassing leadership questionnaire. The TLP is being used in this study to reflect the need for both transactional as well as transformational parts of leadership.

The LBQ is not to be confused with the LBDQ from the Ohio State Studies although they are similar in nature. Both questionnaires consider it to be important to have the leader and associates of the leader rate leader behaviors. The LBDQ also asks leaders to rate how they believe they should behave (Halpin, 1966). Whereas the LBDQ defines leader behaviors as consisting of two primary facets, the LBQ and the TLP consider leadership to encompass 10 different categories.

The two facets of the LBDQ are 1) initiating structure, and 2) consideration (Halpin, 1966). Initiating structure is similar to Sashkin and Rosenbach's (1995) transactional leadership cluster because it encompasses the managerial necessities inherent in maintaining a smooth running organization. The LBDQ's "consideration"

combines all of the transformational leadership attributes from the TLP. Halpin suggests that it is necessary for good leaders to be able demonstrate high levels of both initiating structure and consideration. He also emphasizes that the situational nature of leadership requires that leaders be able to vary the amount of consideration and initiating structure they utilize as organizational events demand. In one study which assessed educational administrators and aircraft commanders, Halpin (1966) reports that competent leaders from both fields display high levels of initiating structure and consideration. Weak leaders in the field of education demonstrate high levels of consideration with low levels of initiating structure while weak aircraft commanders show high levels of initiating structure and low levels of consideration.

In her study, Rogers (1993) used Sashkin's LBQ in an effort to ascertain whether or not teachers and principals were in agreement regarding the strength of principal behaviors and characteristics. Rogers reports that there was not a significant difference in perceptions between what principals and teachers felt the principal's strengths were. In other words, most principals know their strengths and weaknesses, and are in agreement with their teachers on the subject. The missing piece from this study is which aspects of leadership should be focused on to strengthen a principal's weaknesses.

Coyler (1997) utilized Sashkin's LBQ to explore the relationship between leadership scores and organizational performance in a retail setting. She also considered leader-follower agreement to determine the extent to which there might be inflation of leadership scores as reported by the leaders. Among the group of participants where the employers and employees were in agreement regarding strong leadership attributes, Coyler found that there was a positive correlation with store performance. Managers who

were rated low by themselves, others, or both did not have the same level of productivity with their stores. Through analysis of multiple regression, Coyler found the scale of culture building to be the best predictor of organizational performance.

Sashkin and Sashkin (1993) utilized the LBQ as the leadership piece of a study which assessed leadership characteristics and behaviors of all administrators in a school district. These administrators included principals, assistant principals, lead teachers, vocational supervisors, the superintendent, the associate superintendent, and assistant superintendents. Then school culture questionnaires were sent to teachers and district personnel for the other measurement.

The study by Sashkin and Sashkin (1993) found that there was a correlation between trust and culture building, and vision and culture building. They concluded that the way leaders think about and behave regarding culture building will influence their success in culture building. Further, Sashkin and Sashkin emphasized that these characteristics are related to teamwork, which is being pursued by many as a method of school improvement.

Summary

Research suggests that the world of educational leadership is ever-changing in the area of leadership style. Although there are differing opinions about whether or not it is appropriate for leaders to mold the culture of a school, it seems reasonable that this will happen inferentially even if the principal does not specifically set out to contribute to cultural change.

In this day of heightened scrutiny toward educational achievement and school improvement, educational leaders are looking for ways to effectively transform schools into learning environments that encompass the intellectual needs of all people involved: students, staff, and administration. Researchers such as Jantzi and Leithwood (1996) call for a formal method of transformational leadership while others such as Sergiovanni (1993) express that a return to moral or ethical leadership will provide the motivation for increased positive cultural advances. Authors such as Bates (1987), Giroux (1992), and Marshall (1988) are cautious about the entrance of culture into the field of education, but are not necessarily against the idea as long as it involves increasing democracy in schools rather than the manipulation of employees.

The literature is in agreement that trust, openness, and vision are key components of effective leadership. Without these key ingredients the specific strategies used by principals to gain a positive school culture will be looked upon with suspicion by teachers and probably ignored. With sincerity of heart and active reflection, principals can reform the cultures of their schools so that they become more productive learning environments.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of the design of the study. The hypotheses are restated along with a description of the independent and dependent variables. Both the leadership and school culture instruments are presented with reliability coefficients. Procedures are explained regarding the process of preparation for the study as well as for the data analysis.

CHAPTER 3 DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to explore how specific leadership behaviors and characteristics of principals impact the development of a positive school culture and how those behaviors and characteristics are perceived by teachers. The assumption in this study was that principals who demonstrate high levels of positive leadership behaviors will be more likely to encourage a productive organizational culture within their schools.

Research in the areas of leadership traits and school culture has been completed both qualitatively and quantitatively. This study explored, through correlational analysis and multiple regression, how principal behaviors relate to school culture. The researcher also examined how closely aligned the perceptions of principals and teachers are regarding principal behaviors and characteristics. This inquiry compared statistical results between those groups of schools because leadership styles and teacher expectations often differ at the elementary and secondary levels.

This chapter contains a description of the hypotheses; participants; independent variables; moderator variables; dependent variables; instrumentation; data collection, which includes the processes of testing the hypotheses, preparation of the instrument, and instructions given to the participants; and data analysis.

Hypotheses

Three hypotheses provide the bases for this study.

1. Specific characteristics and behaviors of principals affect school culture.
2. The level of agreement between principals and teachers regarding effective school leadership will vary. This variation will impact the principal's ability to shape the culture of his or her school.
3. There is a difference between the leadership characteristics and behaviors that are perceived to be effective by secondary teachers versus elementary teachers.

Participants

The population for this study was drawn from the state of Florida. Three hundred schools were randomly selected for this study. For each school 15 teachers were randomly selected; fewer were chosen in the case of small schools that did not have 15 teachers. A total of 300 principals were selected to be queried about their perceptions of their own leadership behaviors. A total of 4500 teachers were selected to be queried about their perceptions of leadership behaviors and school culture.

Individual schools were the unit of measure for this quantitative research project because participants evaluated the culture and the principal of their school. Within each school the principal completed Sashkin and Rosenbach's (1995) TLP-Self to determine the extent of his or her perceived leadership strengths. Randomly selected teachers from the same school completed both the TPL-Other and a school culture questionnaire developed by the Center for Research on the Context of Secondary School Teaching

(CRC) at Stanford University (1993) entitled CRC Survey Measures of Teachers' Professional Community, Commitment, and Instructional Adaptation.

The TLP-Self and TLP-Other are exactly the same instrument, but were coded to indicate which were responded to by principals (Self) and which were completed by teachers (Other) for purposes of analysis. These questionnaires determined how the principal's teachers perceive his or her leadership strengths and how strong the teachers believe the school's culture is, respectively. Each school was given its own identification number to ensure anonymity for the individual respondents and schools, yet allow the researcher to compare the questionnaires of teachers and principals from the same schools.

Independent Variables

There are 10 independent variables in this study, all of which concern attitudes toward what constitutes effective leadership. These variables were measured by Sashkin and Rosenbach's (1995) TLP. Sashkin and Rosenbach categorize the concept of leadership into 10 different components. These components were the independent variables. The first two independent variables combine to demonstrate Transactional Leadership.

1. Capable Management
2. Reward Equity.

The next four independent variables combine to demonstrate Transformational Leadership Behavior.

3. Communication Leadership

4. Credible Leadership

5. Caring Leadership

6. Creative Leadership

The final four independent variables combine to demonstrate Transformational Leadership Characteristics.

7. Confident Leadership

8. Follower-Centered Leadership

9. Visionary Leadership

10. Principle-Centered Leadership.

The subcategories are then combined to give a Total Visionary Leadership Score (Sashkin, Rosenbach, & Sashkin, 1997).

Moderator Variables

One possible moderating variable was whether the school was an elementary or secondary school. After the initial data analysis, school type was considered to determine if a difference existed between leadership and school culture at the elementary level and leadership and school culture at the secondary level.

Another possible moderating variable was whether or not the principal and employees were in agreement about the principal's leadership behaviors. Agreement or disagreement about leadership style might influence the degree to which the leader influenced school culture.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variable was the participants' opinions about school culture as assessed by the CRC survey. The outcome of the CRC survey was used as the dependent variable in this study because the research question hoped to discover whether or not leader behaviors and characteristics impact a school's culture. Therefore, each scale of the TLP was correlated with the CRC survey to assess the extent to which each leadership scale correlated with school culture.

Instrumentation

Leader Behavior Instrument

Sashkin's original Leader Behavior Questionnaire (LBQ) was developed in 1984 based upon the research of Warren Bennis. He developed a questionnaire that he believed would assess the five areas that Bennis discovered to be most often found in exceptional leaders: (a) Management of Attention, maintaining employees' interest and excitement; (b) Management of Communication, being clear and speaking face-to-face; (c) Management of Trust, building trust through consistency; (d) Management of Respect, cares for employees; and (e) Management of Risk, focusing on achievements that are possible to attain rather than failures to be avoided. Sashkin also added four other scales because he felt the personal dimensions of leadership were missing with simply the above five areas (Sashkin, 1996).

Sashkin revised his LBQ in 1988 to include major changes which emphasized the future of leadership rather than assessing the past. The instrument was revised once again in 1995 by Sashkin with Rosenbach. To maintain alignment with current organizational

theory, two additional scales which considered elements of transactional leadership were added. They then combined two communication and culture building scales into one each, thus maintaining 10 subcategories and renamed the instrument The Leadership Profile (TLP) (Sashkin, et al., 1997). Sashkin and Rosenbach's TLP is a questionnaire of 50 items with five items addressing each of the 10 scales.

Sashkin emphasizes that a minimum of three and preferably at least four employees complete the TLP-Other for adequate reliability. He also cautions that it is important to consider how closely the TLP-Self and TLP-Other scores match when assessing the reliability of a study. History showed with the LBQ that large discrepancies between LBQ-Self and LBQ-Other were likely to indicate that the leader had serious problems (Sashkin, 1996). Coyer (1997) found that, when there was not an adequate match between LBQ-Self and LBQ-Other, results were insignificant. When the difference in scores between LBQ-Self and LBQ-Other was within one-half of a standard deviation of the mean difference, she found a high correlation.

Sashkin, et al. (1997) report acceptable Cronbach alpha item-scale reliabilities for each scale except scale 8, Follower-Centered Leadership (TLP-Self $\alpha = .334$, TLP-Other $\alpha = .366$). Factor analysis shows two distinct sub-scales for scale 8, separating pro-social and personal power which would account for the low alpha when combined. The Cronbach alpha score for each of the other scales respectively is, scale 1 TLP-Self $\alpha = .767$, TLP-Other $\alpha = .822$ (capable management); scale 2 TLP-Self $\alpha = .801$, TLP-Other $\alpha = .890$ (reward equity); scale 3 TLP-Self $\alpha = .668$, TLP-Other $\alpha = .800$ (communication leadership); scale 4 TLP-Self $\alpha = .785$, TLP-Other $\alpha = .892$ (credible leadership); scale 5 TLP-Self $\alpha = .771$, TLP-Other $\alpha = .900$ (caring leadership); scale 6 TLP-Self $\alpha = .814$,

TLP-Other $\alpha = .844$ (creative leadership); scale 7 TLP-Self $\alpha = .740$, TLP-Other $\alpha = .747$ (confident leadership); scale 9 TLP-Self $\alpha = .589$, TLP-Other $\alpha = .569$ (visionary leadership); and scale 10 TLP-Self $\alpha = .597$, TLP-Other $\alpha = .714$ (principle-centered leadership).

School Culture Instrument

The schools' cultures will be assessed through a survey developed by the Center for Research on the Context of Secondary School Teaching (CRC) entitled CRC Survey Measures of Teachers' Professional Community, Commitment, and Instructional Adaptation. The CRC is based out of the school of education at Stanford University. The survey was developed as part of on-going research in the area of school climate.

The CRC has developed its theory with the belief that it is the context in which students are taught that drives the extent of their learning. With that in mind, the center researches interactions between people in schools to discern how teachers translate new standards and curricula into educational experiences within their classrooms. Studies by the CRC have found that teachers are "mediated by the character of the professional communities in which they work" (McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993, p. 8). The CRC survey to be utilized in this study has been developed to explore teacher attitudes and their relationship to their professional school environments. These informal professional environments within the school have been labeled school climate or school culture in current educational literature.

There are three sections to the CRC survey: (a) professional community indicators, (b) professional commitment, and (c) instructional self-efficacy. Within the

professional community section there are three subsections with the following alpha levels: (a) collegiality, $\alpha=.84$; (b) faculty innovativeness, $\alpha=.79$; and (c) support for learning, $\alpha=.82$. The professional commitment index boasts an $\alpha=.75$, and instructional self-efficacy reports an $\alpha=.74$. These alpha levels are acceptable for reliability purposes.

Data Collection

This section includes information about how the hypotheses were tested, how the sample was drawn, how biases were controlled for, the preparation of the instrument, and survey packets. Information on school type was collected from the state department of education when the schools were selected. Data on leadership and school culture was collected by the instruments discussed above.

Testing the Hypotheses

The first hypothesis stated that specific characteristics and behaviors of principals affect school culture. This hypothesis was tested using correlation and regression analysis to show which of the 10 leadership subcategories were significantly correlated with school culture.

The second hypothesis stated that the level of agreement between principals and teachers regarding effective leadership will vary. Results from the comparison of TLP-Self with TLP-Other demonstrated how closely aligned principals' and teachers' perceptions were regarding leadership in individual schools. When those results were linked to the results of the CRC survey, data revealed the strength of the relationship between existing school culture and alignment of leader effectiveness perceptions.

The third hypothesis stated that there is a difference between the leadership characteristics and behaviors that are perceived to be effective by secondary teachers versus elementary teachers. This inquiry also compared the results of elementary schools with secondary schools to explore any differences that school type may have regarding the relationship between leader behaviors and school culture.

Preparation of the Instrument

The instruments were coded so that each questionnaire response sheet sent to employees of a particular school had a school identification number. Participants were also assigned individual numbers to preserve anonymity yet allow for the consideration of moderating variables. All of the principals received the same individual number of 01 for the purpose of identifying them as the leader of their school. Teachers in elementary schools received individual numbers between 11 and 25. Secondary school teachers received individual numbers between 41 and 55. A few schools combined elementary and secondary levels. Teachers in these schools received individual numbers between 71 and 85.

The school identification numbers allowed teacher surveys to be compared with the principal's survey from the same school. The researcher was able to sort the data by school and utilize the individual code numbers to identify the principal for purposes of analysis. Since the moderating variables in this study concern elementary versus secondary school levels, the individual teacher codes allowed the researcher to identify school level for the analysis. The coding also provided the researcher the opportunity to

check how well the teacher and principal ratings of each principal's leadership attributes matched each other.

Instructions to Participants

Each survey packet contained a cover letter explaining the intentions of the study, a copy of the TLP-Self for principals, a copy of the TLP-Other and CRC survey for teachers, instructions for completing the questionnaires, and return mailing materials. Three weeks after the first mailing, a follow-up survey packet was sent out to nonrespondents with another letter requesting participation in the study. Two weeks after the second mailing, a postcard reminder was sent out to those subjects who still had not responded. Phone calls were made to the principals or secretaries of the schools between mailings.

Data Analysis

The TLP data was collected on machine-readable forms. The study utilized descriptive statistics as well as correlation and multiple regression. An alpha level of .05 was used to test for significance on all hypotheses.

A correlational study is appropriate for this research problem because the issue being studied is the degree to which there is a relationship between leader behaviors and positive school culture. A dependent *t*-test showed the mean difference across all respondents. The combined--principal and teacher--TLP scores were correlated with the combined CRC scores to show the relative rank order of leadership subcategories with regard to school culture. Leader perceptions of their own behaviors and characteristics

were also correlated with teachers' perceptions of their leader's behaviors and characteristics to determine the extent to which their opinions were in alignment. Calculating the discrepancies between principal and teacher opinions was completed to explore whether or not agreement about the effectiveness of the principal is a predictor of scores on the school culture instrument.

Utilizing multiple regressions allowed the researcher to isolate the source(s) of significant relationships between leader actions and school culture. The possibility existed that only one scale of the TLP would significantly effect school culture. Another possibility was that only when principal and staff perceptions of effective leadership were in alignment would there be a significant correlation between leader actions and positive school culture. For these reasons, it was important to analyze the data more extensively than using correlational analysis by itself.

Further analysis determined the extent to which there was a difference between leaders' actions and school culture in elementary versus secondary schools. Because of the structural differences between typical elementary and secondary schools, it was possible that there were varying teacher beliefs about what constitutes an effective school leader. Exploration of this moderating variable was expected to bring valuable information to principals at different levels of schooling.

Summary

This chapter described the process that the researcher went through in order to complete the study. Research instruments were found that complimented the hypotheses and allowed for objective analysis. Regression analysis was appropriate for this study

due to the nature of the independent variables, dependent variable, and moderating variables. The questionnaires that were chosen for this study demonstrated adequate reliability based upon their Cronbach's alpha ratings. Coding individual questionnaires in the manner described allowed the researcher to flexibly analyze the data based upon the three hypotheses.

Chapter 4 presents the analysis of data for this study. Descriptive statistics are presented to help the reader better understand the data. Correlation and multiple regression findings are presented and explained.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to explore how specific leadership behaviors and characteristics of principals impact the development of a positive school culture and how those behaviors and characteristics were perceived by teachers. This chapter presents the statistical findings from the completed study. Demographic and descriptive data are reported and the findings for each of the following three hypotheses for this study are presented.

1. Specific characteristics and behaviors of principals affect school culture.
2. The level of agreement between principals and teachers regarding effective school leadership will vary. This variation will impact the principal's ability to shape the culture of his or her school.
3. There is a difference between the leadership characteristics and behaviors that are perceived to be effective by secondary teachers versus elementary teachers.

Participants

The population for this study was drawn from the state of Florida. Three hundred schools were randomly selected for this study. For each school, 15 teachers were randomly selected; fewer were chosen in the case of small schools that did not have 15 teachers. A total of 300 principals were selected to be queried about their perceptions of

their own leadership behaviors. A total of 4,500 teachers were selected to be queried about their perceptions of leadership behaviors and school culture.

In order to obtain the highest possible return rate from participants, permission was obtained from districts, participants were sent a full packet as a first follow-up mailing, a postcard reminder was sent as a second follow-up mailing, and two calls were made to the schools between follow-up mailings. As the study progressed, two school districts and two schools declined to participate for various reasons. The removal of these participants brought the actual number of schools and principals queried to 286. Approximately 210 teachers, therefore, were deleted from the study. There were 18 schools from which there were no respondents, yet no notice of refusal to participate. In addition, 87 teacher questionnaire packets were sent back unanswered by schools because the teachers were no longer there.

A total of 1,466 people from 268 schools participated in the study. Although this number is less than desired, enough responses were returned to complete the analysis with confidence. Sashkin (1996) reports adequate reliability for The Leadership Profile (TLP) questionnaire as long as more than three associates of the leader respond. There were respondents from 94% of the schools that agreed to be included in the study. The principal and at least four teachers responded from 51% of the schools. The principal and at least five teachers responded from 34% of the schools.

Table 1 shows the numbers and percents of participants who responded to the TLP questionnaire. The total number of participants responding to the TLP is slightly lower than the overall total of participants because some teachers elected to answer only

the CRC Survey Measures of Teachers' Professional Community, Commitment, and Instructional Adaptation (CRC) questionnaire. In addition, numbers and percents from the selected sample and the population of Florida are presented for comparison.

Table 1. TLP Respondents by Position and Level

Participant	Response Number	Response Percent	Sample Number	Sample Percent	Population Number	Population Percent
Elementary Principals	137	9.5	212	4.46	1,548	1.22
Secondary Principals	55	3.8	85	1.79	830	0.66
Combined Principals	1	0.1	3	0.06	*	*
Elementary Teachers	890	61.6	3167	66.64	66,212	52.30
Secondary Teachers	353	24.4	1270	26.73	57,992	45.81
Combined Teachers	8	0.6	15	0.32	*	*

*Numbers not reported by Florida State Department of Education

Table 2 shows the number and percentage of elementary and secondary schools that are represented in this study with the selected sample and population of Florida for comparison. Elementary and secondary schools were considered separately in part of the study because one of the moderating variables was the possible difference regarding perceived leader strengths at the elementary versus secondary level. For that reason, schools which included both elementary and secondary grade levels were not considered during the elementary versus secondary analysis.

Table 2. Percentage of Responses of Elementary and Secondary Schools

School Type	Response Number	Response Percent	Sample Number	Sample Percent	Population Number	Population Percent
Elementary	190	70.9	212	71.4	1,548	65.0
Secondary	78	29.1	85	28.6	830	35.0

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were completed for both the TLP and the CRC questionnaires. Cronbach's alphas were calculated for each scale of the TLP as well as for the clusters of Transactional Leadership, Transformational Leadership Behaviors, and Transformational Leadership Characteristics, and for the TLP Total scale. One Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the total score on the CRC survey. Means, standard deviations, and item analyses were completed for each questionnaire, and are discussed in the following sections.

The Leadership Profile

The overall number of respondents for the TLP was higher than that of the CRC because both principals and teachers responded. Table 3 shows the number of people who responded to each scale, cluster, and total TLP as well as the mean and standard deviation for each. The number of participants for each scale varies because some people chose not to answer some of the questions. Each TLP item was rated on a scale from 1 to 5, with 5 as a good rating and 1 as a poor rating. Hence, more effective principals earned higher scores. The capable management and reward equity scales combine to make the Transactional Leadership (TL) cluster. The scales of communication leadership, credible leadership, caring leadership, and creative leadership combine to make the Transformational Leadership Behavior (TLP) cluster. Confident leadership, follower-centered leadership, visionary leadership, and principle-centered leadership combine to make the Transformational Leadership Characteristics cluster (TLC).

Table 3. Mean Scores for TLP Scales, Clusters, and Total Score

Variable	Participants	Mean Score	S D
TL Cluster	1342	39.25	8.36
1. Capable Management	1394	20.45	3.90
2. Reward Equity	1370	18.78	4.82
TLB Cluster	1305	80.44	16.87
3. Communication Leadership	1386	19.48	4.31
4. Credible Leadership	1395	20.48	4.55
5. Caring Leadership	1410	20.40	4.69
6. Creative Leadership	1372	19.93	4.26
TLC Cluster	1131	75.23	11.99
7. Confident Leadership	1336	20.72	3.63
8. Follower-centered Leadership	1261	17.42	3.55
9. Visionary Leadership	1327	18.14	2.85
10. Principle-centered Leadership	1319	19.26	3.81
Total TLP	1054	194.45	35.82

Cronbach's alphas were calculated for each scale, cluster, and the total TLP to check for reliability. Table 4 presents Cronbach's alphas for each TLP scale, cluster, and total score. Scales 1-7 and 10 had reliabilities high enough to interpret with confidence. Scale 8 had an alpha which was considered unacceptable for this study. Sashkin, et al. (1997) report that factor analysis of scale 8 in their study showed two sub-scales; one that relates to pro-social power and the other that involves personal power. Individually, the sub-scales had acceptable alphas, but when combined the total scale Cronbach's alpha dropped. Scale 9 was also initially considered to have an unacceptable alpha for this study. In this study, one item in the scale, question 19, had a fairly strong negative correlation with the scale as a whole and appeared to be lowering the overall alpha. When that item was removed, the alpha level for scale nine was strong at $\alpha = .88$. After

consulting with Sashkin and Rosenbach, question 19 was dropped before completing the data analysis.

Table 4. Cronbach's Alphas for the TLP

Variable	Cronbach's α
TL Cluster	.95
1. Capable Management	.90
2. Reward Equity	.93
TLB Cluster	.98
3. Communication Leadership	.89
4. Credible Leadership	.94
5. Caring Leadership	.94
6. Creative Leadership	.91
TLC Cluster	.90
7. Confident Leadership	.87
8. Follower-centered Leadership	.51
9. Visionary Leadership	.52
10. Principle-centered Leadership	.78
Total TLP	.98

CRC Survey Measures of Teachers' Professional Community, Commitment, and Instructional Adaptation

The overall number of respondents for the CRC was necessarily lower than that of the TLP because only teachers responded. Table 5 shows the number of people who responded to the CRC questionnaire as well as the mean, standard deviation, and Cronbach's alpha. The alpha for the CRC survey was high enough to interpret the results with confidence. Each CRC item was rated on a scale from 1 to 5, with 1 as a good rating and 5 as a poor rating. Hence, schools with a more positive culture earned lower scores. The difference in directionality between the CRC and TLP is important to consider when interpreting the data.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for CRC

Number	Mean Score	S D	Cronbach's α
1287	61.49	16.15	.89

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis stated that specific characteristics and behaviors of principals affect school culture. Each of the 10 TLP scales were compared with the CRC outcome to assess which leadership scale or scales impacted positive school culture the most. Each of the clusters and the total TLP score were also analyzed in relation to the CRC outcome to assess the extent to which any of them related to positive school culture. Since strength of school culture was judged to be greater by earning lower scores on the CRC questionnaire and effective leadership was judged to be greater by earning higher scores on the TLP, it was expected that there would be a negative relationship between TLP and CRC scores for effective principals with strong school cultures.

This expectation proved to be true only part of the time. Table 6 shows the regression coefficients for the total TLP outcomes. With 70.9% of the schools in this study being elementary, the elementary results were considered indicative of the overall teacher perception. Overall, principals who were rated highly on the total TLP had significantly lower scores on the CRC at $p < .05$. This means that teachers felt that their schools were more professional, community oriented, and instructionally adaptable when they had leaders who rated highly on the TLP.

Table 6. Regression Coefficients for Elementary Total TLP

Variable	Slope	T value	P value
Total TLP	-0.22	-4.44	0.0001*

* statistically significant at $p < .05$

Table 7 shows the regression coefficients for the TLP cluster outcomes. Of the three TLP clusters, transformational leadership characteristics (TLC) was the only one to show a significant effect on school culture with $p < .05$. With a slope of -0.97, the relationship of transformational leadership characteristics with school culture was negative as expected.

Table 7. Regression Coefficients for Elementary TLP Clusters

Variable	Slope	T value	P value
TL Cluster	-0.42	-1.12	0.2637
TLB Cluster	0.05	1.76	0.0830
TLC Cluster	-0.97	-3.84	0.0002*

* statistically significant at $p < .05$

Three of the individual scales were significant in relation to the CRC outcome, but only two had the expected negative slope which would indicate that a high score on the TLP was consistent with a low, and therefore better, score on the CRC. Table 8 shows the individual scale regression coefficients for elementary schools. Scale 10, principle-centered leadership, had a slope of -2.24 and was significant at $p < 0.05$. Given that this scale involves culture-building on the part of the leader it is logical that it would significantly impact culture outcomes. Scale 9, visionary leadership, was also significant at $p < 0.05$ and had a slope of -1.89. These two scales encompass half of the

transformational leadership characteristics cluster of the TLP which would account for the significant findings for that cluster.

Another individual TLP scale that was significant with regard to the CRC outcome was scale four, credible leadership. The credible leadership scale was significant at $p < 0.05$. Unlike the other significant findings, however, this slope was positive at 1.70. In this study, as principals scored higher on the credibility scale, their strength of school culture diminished.

Table 8. Regression Coefficients for Elementary TLP Scales

Variable	Slope	T value	P value
1. Capable Management	-0.28	-0.33	0.7423
2. Reward Equity	0.19	0.31	0.7537
3. Communication Leadership	-0.34	-0.40	0.6886
4. Credible Leadership	1.70	2.20	0.0295*
5. Caring Leadership	0.27	0.34	0.7313
6. Creative Leadership	-0.63	-0.67	0.5044
7. Confident Leadership	0.69	0.84	0.4009
8. Follower-centered Leadership	-0.37	-0.83	0.4068
9. Visionary Leadership	-1.89	-2.08	0.0400*
10. Principle-centered Leadership	-2.24	-3.39	0.0009*

* statistically significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis stated that the level of agreement between principals and teachers regarding effective school leadership will vary. This variation was expected to impact the principal's ability to shape the culture of his or her school. In this study, principals rated themselves more highly on every TLP scale. Table 9 shows the mean, t values and p values for principal-teacher discrepancies. Only scales 7, confident

leadership, and 9, visionary leadership, do not have statistically significant differences between principal and teacher ratings of the principal's leadership skills with $p > .05$. Three TLP scales stood out from the others with exceptionally high discrepancies between principals and teachers. Scales 4, credible leadership; 5, caring leadership; and 8, follower-centered leadership showed principals rating themselves much differently than teachers rated them compared to the rest of the TLP scales.

Table 9. T values and P values for Absolute Principal-Teacher discrepancies

Variable	Schools	Mean Differences	Standard Deviation	T value	P value
TL Cluster	181	2.12	6.64	4.28	0.0001*
1. Capable Management	186	0.98	3.17	4.21	0.0001*
2. Reward Equity	183	1.24	3.74	4.47	0.0001*
TLB Cluster	181	7.00	12.88	7.31	0.0001*
3. Communication Leadership	188	1.02	3.50	4.00	0.0001*
4. Credible Leadership	185	2.65	3.48	10.35	0.0001*
5. Caring Leadership	186	2.19	3.43	8.73	0.0001*
6. Creative Leadership	185	1.23	3.52	4.74	0.0001*
TLC Cluster	166	3.25	10.92	3.83	0.0002*
7. Confident Leadership	183	0.19	3.36	0.76	0.4455
8. Follower-centered Leadership	176	1.80	2.97	8.10	0.0001*
9. Visionary Leadership	185	0.26	3.10	1.16	0.2491
10. Principle-centered Leadership	183	0.79	3.25	3.30	0.0012*
Total TLP	156	12.79	29.62	5.39	0.0001*

* statistically significant at $p < .05$

In the event that leader-follower agreement on the TLP, or lack thereof, might affect the results of the study, an analysis was also completed to account for principal-teacher discrepancies in scoring. When discrepancies among the principal and teachers from the same school regarding TLP scores were considered, there were many statistically significant differences. There were significant levels of disagreement on the

total TLP, each cluster, and all except two scales. In addition, the relationship between principal-teacher discrepancies and school culture was examined.

These results presented a positive slope for each significant effect. Table 10 shows the total TLP results for principal-teacher discrepancies. The total TLP was significant at $p < 0.05$ with a slope of 0.08. Table 11 shows the TLP cluster results for principal-teacher discrepancies. The TLB cluster was significant at $p < 0.05$ with a slope of 0.26.

Table 10. Regression Coefficients for Absolute Principal-Teacher Discrepancies on the Total TLP

Variable	Slope	T value	P value
Total TLP	0.08	2.59	0.0105*

* statistically significant at $p < .05$

Table 11. Regression Coefficients for Absolute Principal-Teacher Discrepancies on TLP Clusters

Variable	Slope	T Value	P Value
TL Cluster	0.13	0.49	0.6265
TLB Cluster	0.26	2.20	0.0294*
TLC Cluster	-0.10	-0.79	0.4285

* statistically significant at $p < .05$

Table 12 shows the effect of the principal-teacher discrepancies for the individual TLP scales. Examining principal-teacher discrepancies on the scoring of the TLP had a significant effect for only one individual scale. Scale 5, caring leadership, was found to be significant in relation to school culture at $p < 0.05$ with a slope of 1.03. The significance of this scale with a positive slope means that as principals diverge from

teachers in their rating of leader caring, the overall culture of their schools becomes weaker.

Table 12. Regression Coefficients for Absolute Principal-Teacher Discrepancies on TLP Scales

Variable	Slope	T value	P value
1. Capable Management	0.48	0.85	0.3950
2. Reward Equity	-0.09	-0.21	0.8376
3. Communication Leadership	0.03	0.06	0.9496
4. Credible Leadership	0.42	1.09	0.2782
5. Caring Leadership	1.03	2.32	0.0208*
6. Creative Leadership	-0.87	-0.17	0.8684
7. Confident Leadership	-0.16	-0.37	0.7146
8. Follower-centered Leadership	-0.52	-1.55	0.1242
9. Visionary Leadership	-0.34	-0.67	0.5049
10. Principle-centered Leadership	0.06	0.13	0.8958

* statistically significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis stated that there was a difference between the leadership characteristics and behaviors that were perceived to be effective by secondary teachers versus elementary teachers in affecting school culture. Secondary results were separated from elementary to discern if there were different preferred leader actions by secondary versus elementary teachers via an interaction between school level and TLP.

The instruments were coded so that each questionnaire response sheet sent to employees of a particular school had a school identification number. Participants were also assigned individual numbers to preserve anonymity yet allow for the consideration of moderating variables. All of the principals received the same individual number of 01 for the purpose of identifying them as the leader of their school. Teachers in elementary

schools received individual numbers between 11 and 25. Secondary school teachers received individual numbers between 41 and 55. A few schools combined elementary and secondary levels. Teachers in these schools received individual numbers between 71 and 85.

The school identification numbers allowed teacher surveys to be compared with the principal's survey from the same school. The researcher was able to sort the data by school and utilize the individual code numbers to identify the principal for purposes of analysis. Since the moderating variables in this study concerned elementary versus secondary school levels, the individual teacher codes allowed the researcher to identify school level for the analysis. The coding also provided the researcher the opportunity to check how well the teacher and principal ratings of each principal's leadership attributes matched each other.

This study showed no significant difference for secondary teachers relative to elementary teachers on the total TLP or any of the clusters in affecting school climate. Table 13 shows the total TLP outcomes for secondary schools based upon their interaction with elementary schools. Table 14 shows the TLP cluster outcomes for secondary schools based upon their interaction with elementary schools.

Table 13. Interaction Regression Coefficients for Total TLP in Secondary Schools

Variable	Slope	T value	P value
Total TLP	-0.08	-0.87	0.3837

Table 14. Interaction Regression Coefficients for TLP Clusters in Secondary Schools

Variable	Slope	T value	P value
TL Cluster	-0.34	-0.45	0.6555
TLB Cluster	-0.54	-1.21	0.2281
TLC Cluster	0.47	1.10	0.2720

Table 15 shows individual scale outcomes for secondary schools based upon their interaction with elementary schools. Two individual scales of the TLP were significantly different from elementary. Scale 1, capable management, had a significant relationship with $p < 0.05$. With its negative slope, secondary schools reported better school culture relative to elementary schools when the principal scored highly on that scale of the TLP. Scale 10, principle-centered leadership, was also significant with $p < 0.05$. Principle-centered leadership had a positive slope and was statistically significantly different from elementary. Secondary schools scored higher on the CRC when the leader was rated highly on that scale of the TLP meaning that, relative to elementary schools, their school culture diminished as the leader became more principle-centered.

Table 15. Interaction Regression Coefficients for TLP Scales

Variable	Slope	T value	P value
1. Capable Management	-5.02	-2.44	0.0162*
2. Reward Equity	0.90	0.79	0.4338
3. Communication Leadership	-1.11	-0.78	0.4371
4. Credible Leadership	-0.22	-0.17	0.8647
5. Caring Leadership	-1.25	-0.96	0.3397
6. Creative Leadership	1.83	1.10	0.2736
7. Confident Leadership	-1.36	-1.00	0.3191
8. Follower-centered Leadership	-0.31	-0.33	0.7386
9. Visionary Leadership	2.70	1.67	0.0976
10. Principle-centered Leadership	3.25	2.40	0.0178*

* statistically significant at $p < .05$

The t and p values were computed based upon the slopes in table 15 which involved an interaction between elementary and secondary schools. Table 16 shows secondary slopes without any elementary school influence as well as elementary slopes for comparison. In order to find the secondary slopes without the influence of elementary scores, discrepancies between the two school levels were figured. The new slopes reflect scores by secondary and elementary personnel without the interaction of each other.

The adjusted slope for the capable management scale was -5.30. The negative slope of this scale indicated that when secondary principals scored highly on the capable management scale of the TLP their school cultures were stronger. The adjusted slope for principle-centered leadership, however, was 1.01. This scale lost its significance in relation to the CRC when separated from elementary.

Table 16. Regression Coefficients for Secondary and Elementary TLP Scales

Variable	Secondary Slope	Elementary Slope	P value
1. Capable Management	-5.30	-0.28	0.0162*
2. Reward Equity	1.09	0.19	0.4338
3. Communication Leadership	1.45	-0.34	0.4371
4. Credible Leadership	1.48	1.70	0.8647
5. Caring Leadership	-0.98	0.27	0.3397
6. Creative Leadership	1.20	-0.63	0.2736
7. Confident Leadership	-0.67	0.69	0.3191
8. Follower-centered Leadership	-0.68	-0.37	0.7386
9. Visionary Leadership	0.81	-1.89	0.0976
10. Principle-centered Leadership	1.01	-2.24	0.0178*

* statistically significant at $p < .05$

Summary

The outcomes of this study demonstrated that there are specific characteristics and behaviors of principals that affect school culture. There are also discrepancies in the ratings of principals by themselves and the teachers who work in their schools, with principals consistently rating themselves higher than the teachers rated them. These discrepancies produced different results when accounted for in the analysis of the TLP with the CRC. Also, through an analysis of the interaction between elementary and secondary teachers, this study showed some differences in preference regarding leadership style.

Chapter 5 contains a discussion of these outcomes and as well as implications for practice. Recommendations are also presented for further research with final conclusions for the study.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to explore how specific leadership behaviors and characteristics of principals impact the development of a positive school culture and how those behaviors and characteristics are perceived by teachers. This chapter provides a summary of the study, a discussion of the results, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Study

The present study was completed in the state of Florida with 52 school districts represented by 1466 people in 268 schools. A regression analysis was conducted using the various levels of Sashkin and Rosenbach's (1995) TLP questionnaire as independent variables with the CRC survey from Stanford University (1993) as the dependent variable. After dropping question 19, all scales of the TLP except scale 8 as well as the CRC demonstrated acceptable Cronbach's alphas.

As well as an over-all analysis of the data, a dependent *t* test was conducted to check for agreement between leader and follower ratings of the principals on the TLP. These results showed that principals rated themselves higher than teachers rated them on every level of the TLP with only two of these scales insignificantly higher. When these

discrepancies were accounted for in the data analysis, the results showed different statistically significant findings with different directionality. Secondary schools were also separated and analyzed to consider whether they would produce different results than elementary schools. The regression analysis for secondary schools presented findings that were different than those found for elementary schools.

Discussion of Results

The findings for each of the three hypotheses are discussed in this section. When interpreting the results it is important to remember that the TLP outcomes for effective leaders show high total scores while the CRC outcomes for positive school cultures have low scores. Therefore, one would expect a strong leader (high TLP score) to reflect a positive school culture (low CRC score). This was the case part of the time, but not as often as had been expected.

The results are discussed by hypothesis in keeping with the purpose of this study. Specific characteristics and behaviors of principals were expected to affect school culture. Although the overall results demonstrated that principals judged highly on the TLP have positive school cultures, there were some differences in the findings, especially when accounting for principal-teacher discrepancies and elementary versus secondary status.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis stated that specific characteristics and behaviors of principals affect school culture. With 70.9% of the schools in this study being elementary, the elementary results were considered indicative of the overall teacher perception. As

reported in Chapter 4, this study found that there are certain characteristics and behaviors that affect school culture. Specifically, the TLP scales of credible leadership, visionary leadership, and principle-centered leadership had statistically significant relationships with the CRC culture variable. The transformational leadership characteristics cluster was also significant. This finding was not surprising given that this cluster encompasses the visionary and principle-centered leadership scales.

An effective leader must have vision; dreams to change the world (a'Campo, 1993; Deal & Peterson, 1993; Giroux, 1992; Green, 1987; Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Leithwood, 1994; Sashkin, 1993; Sashkin & Sashkin, 1993; Sergiovanni, 1993). Researchers agree that visionary leadership is important to effective school leadership. This study shows that it is also important for the development of positive school culture. Visionary leadership not only had a significant relationship with school culture, but the correlation was such that strength of school culture could be predicted by strength of visionary leadership as assessed by the TLP and CRC. At least for elementary schools, visionary leaders were very likely to have positive school cultures.

Principle-centered leadership utilizes consensus regarding goals and shared values in keeping with the school's vision as principals work toward shaping the school's culture into one which strives for positive change (Rosenbach, Sashkin, & Harburg, 1996). This scale produced the strongest effect with regard to the CRC outcome for elementary schools. One would expect a connection between this scale and school culture given the culture-building nature of its attributes. Principals who work at building their school culture, at least at the elementary level, tend to have more positive scores on the CRC.

Leaders integrate credible behavior into their work worlds continuously by way of consistently emphasizing actions that are important to them (Green, 1987; Greenleaf, 1977; Marshall, 1996; Sergiovanni, 1993). Teachers agree that credible leadership has an effect on school culture, but according to the results from this study, it is a negative effect. Principals who scored higher on the TLP (good) also had school culture scores which were higher according to the CRC (poor). The question may be a matter of aligning the importance of principal and teacher priorities. Macmillan (1996) stresses the importance of principals integrating into new school cultures. He discusses the idea of principals seeking out which goals are important to teachers so that their own efforts at change can more closely match the perceived needs of their teachers.

The possibility exists that principals who consistently emphasize actions that are important to them may be pushing away teachers who have other priorities. Marshall (1988) and Giroux (1992) caution educational leaders to consider that their goals may be different from those of their teachers, and they must consider whose culture they are shaping for what purpose. Principals who consistently emphasize goals that are in conflict with teacher needs may very well score highly on this scale and have poor school cultures.

Some of the teachers who responded to this study wrote qualitative remarks on the questionnaires. Although some teachers wrote remarks which indicated satisfaction with their principal such as, "My principal is consistently wonderful," others were less enthusiastic about their principal's actions. There were some unflattering comments such as, "My principal consistently does what he wants" or "can be relied on to say, No." Although the comments are negative, they demonstrate consistency and may earn high

scores on the credible leadership scale of the TLP. A question then arises regarding how the credible leadership scale might relate to the creative leadership scale since that scale encompasses risk taking and focussing on follower accomplishments.

Other teachers wrote comments on the CRC survey such as “I realize that my answers indicate a horrible school culture, but the principal is new and has not been able to change the teachers, many who have been here for 25 or more years.” Such comments about the principal’s ability to influence school culture based upon the amount of time at the school lead to questions regarding principal rotation schedules.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis stated that the level of agreement between principals and teachers regarding effective school leadership will vary. The results from this study were consistent with Halpin’s (1966) study regarding educational administrators and aircraft commanders. In his study, data from 196 leaders and their 1527 followers resulted in leaders consistently rating themselves higher than their followers rated them.

Unlike Rogers (1993) this study found considerable variation between principal and teacher ratings of the principal’s effectiveness, with all but two scales showing statistically significant differences. Principals rated themselves higher on the TLP than teachers rated them on every scale. The two scales where principals did not rate themselves significantly higher were confident leadership and visionary leadership. One possible explanation may be that Rogers (1993) utilized only schools which had been designated “Blue Ribbon” schools for excellence. Logic would dictate that schools noted

for excellence would be more inclined to have teachers who similarly note the excellence of their principals.

This study also differed from Coyler's (1997) study in that leader-associate agreement was not required for significant good results. Data analysis was completed to ascertain any differences in the results when principal-teacher discrepancies were accounted for. The results changed when accounting for principal-teacher discrepancies. The scale of caring leadership was the only significant relationship between TLP and CRC scores. The caring leadership scale corresponded strongly enough to school culture that the transformational leadership behaviors cluster, of which it is a part, was also statistically significant in relation to CRC scores. And, the total TLP scores were significant as well.

The discrepancy analysis showed that caring leadership, the only significant scale for hypothesis 2, had a positive relation between TLP and CRC scores. This means that school culture diminished as principals and teachers diverged in their scoring of the principal as a "caring" leader. According to Giroux (1992), Greenleaf (1977), and Marshall, et al. (1996), caring people consider the context of situations and the impact of their decisions on others. This scale produced the second largest discrepancy between principals and teachers. Apparently principals believe they are largely caring people, even though this is not necessarily perceived to be true by teachers.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis stated that there is a difference between the leadership characteristics and behaviors that are perceived to be effective by secondary teachers

versus elementary teachers. There was, in fact, a difference between the results of the perceptions reported by elementary versus secondary teachers. Generally, elementary teachers preferred leaders who were transformational in nature whereas secondary teachers preferred principals who were more transactional.

These results are consistent with those found by Jantzi and Leithwood (1996) whose results suggested that since principals of smaller schools are more accessible, the conditions are more favorable to transformational leaders. Halpin and Croft (1962) also found that elementary and secondary teachers differ in their preferences for leader style. Initially, they had hoped to include both elementary and secondary school teachers in their study which resulted in the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ). However, they were not able to proceed further than the initial interview of teachers before realizing that they would not be able to create one questionnaire that satisfied teachers from both levels of schooling.

The capable management scale of the TLP was the only scale to show significant results in the direction that would indicate that highly rated principals had positive school cultures. Capable management refers to how well the leader attends to administrative tasks which are important for smooth daily organizational functioning (Rosenbach, et al., 1996). According to the results of this study, no other scale, cluster, or total score on the TLP was indicative of a positive school culture. Secondary school teachers appear to be happier with a principal who is adept at organizing and managing daily activities and resources without attending to transformational tasks. In fact, the principle-centered leadership scale, which involves culture building, presented significant results in the

opposite direction. Principals who scored highly on the principle-centered leadership scale also scored highly (a poor culture rating) on the CRC.

Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

The final section discusses conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research. This study has researched a narrow portion of the educational leadership field and can be expanded in many ways.

Conclusions

1. The results of this study are generalizable to the sample respondents from the state of Florida. Although the sample spanned most of the school districts across the state of Florida, the actual number of respondents were such that educators should be careful when utilizing these results in strategic planning. Professionals outside of Florida should generalize with caution.
2. At the elementary level, principals who score highly on the total TLP can be expected to have positive school cultures, especially if there is an emphasis on transformational leadership skills.
3. Secondary school teachers prefer principals who are strong in transactional skills.
4. The consistency traits which encompass the credible leadership scale of the TLP may allow for a high rating of principals who are not necessarily perceived positively by teachers.
5. There are consistent discrepancies between principal and teacher ratings of principals on each scale of the TLP. These discrepancies only effect the data analysis on

the caring leadership scale. The more teachers and principals diverge on their rating of principal caring, the worse the school culture rating.

Implications

1. School districts must contemplate principals' leadership styles when considering them for elementary versus secondary positions.
2. If district personnel wish to place principals with secondary school teaching experience in elementary schools, or vice versa, they will need to consider extensive professional development for the new principal to change old habits.
3. Training for elementary versus secondary school principals by their school districts should reflect the differing preferences of teachers by school level.
4. District initiated school improvement efforts toward consensus and culture-building should be approached differently at the secondary level versus the elementary level.
5. If elementary and secondary school teachers are expected to work in schools that emphasize team-work and culture-building, their teacher preparation courses at the university should reflect that emphasis.
6. Secondary teacher preparation programs in particular should also prepare new teachers to work on interdisciplinary teams rather than exclusively departmental teams.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. It would be useful to explore the impact of school size on school culture. Elementary schools in this study ranged from less than 15 teachers to more than 100

teachers. The possibility exists that school size rather than school level is responsible for differing results of elementary versus secondary schools in this study.

2. This study did not address the possible impact of gender differences on school culture. A similar study which considers gender differences of principals would be an interesting expansion of the present study.

3. Experience in the principalship, both total number of years in the job and number of years at the present school, may provide useful information to researchers and practitioners. The findings of such studies may help school districts with decisions in areas such as rotation of principal assignments.

4. Many teachers who responded to this study wrote that they wished there had been an opportunity to explain some of their answers. A qualitative study which considered the same issues would afford others the opportunity to understand the rationale for teacher judgments.

5. A qualitative exploration of the components in the credible leadership scale might help to explain why consistent leaders could have poor school cultures.

6. Further quantitative analysis of the TLP credible leadership scale with the creative leadership scale would be interesting to see if there is a relationship between them. School improvement literature emphasizes the importance of creative leadership. Are credible leaders more likely to endorse risks, or to deter them?

7. There is a possibility that secondary school teachers prefer strong managers because that is what they are accustomed to. A longitudinal study in a school district which is trying to incorporate more collegial methods of school improvement into secondary schools would provide evidence as to whether secondary teachers' preference

for principals who are good managers instead of culture-builders is permanent or changeable.

8. A study linking elementary versus secondary teacher preferences for principal style with their Myers-Briggs Type Indicators might also provide an indication of whether the results of this study are relatively permanent or whether secondary teachers might evolve in school-wide collegiality through staff development efforts.

9. The results from this study are an average based upon randomly selected schools across the state of Florida. A study which utilized only schools known to be high-performing and low-performing would demonstrate whether the relationship between principal characteristics and behaviors and school culture makes a difference in pupil performance.

APPENDIX A QUESTIONNAIRE PACKETS

Appendix A contains the information included in the questionnaire packets that were sent to the schools and school district administrators. Sashkin and Rosenbach's (1995) The Leadership Profile (TLP) is not included in the appendix because Sashkin and Rosenbach do not wish to have it reproduced. The following is an outline of which documents were sent to principals, teachers, and school district administrators:

Principals

1. Principal letter
2. TLP questionnaire
3. Self-addressed, stamped envelope

Teachers

1. Teacher letter
2. TLP questionnaire
3. CRC questionnaire
4. Scantron to use with CRC questionnaire
5. Self-addressed, stamped envelope

School District Administrators

1. Letter requesting permission to do research

Dear Principals:

My name is Constance Hall, and I am a doctoral student at the University of Florida in the Department of Educational Leadership. My faculty supervisor is Dr. James Doud.

I am writing to request your participation in my dissertation study which will explore the extent to which specific leadership behaviors and characteristics of principals relate to the development of a positive school culture. A positive school culture is considered to be one where there is a strong sense of professional community; where teachers and other school employees work together for the benefit of student and teacher growth.

This study involves the completion of two surveys. Principals and teachers will both complete a questionnaire assessing the principal's leadership behaviors and characteristics. Teachers will also complete a questionnaire to assess their perception of the school's professional culture. This questionnaire should take approximately 15 minutes of your time. You do not have to answer any question you do not wish to answer. There are no known personal risks or benefits to participating in this study. You have the right to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation in the project at any time. Unfortunately there will be no compensation provided for your time and effort other than my eternal gratitude.

Fifteen of your teachers have also been asked to participate in this study. They were selected at random. Data will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Enclosed you will find a self-addressed, stamped envelope so that you can return your questionnaires directly to me. This measure is to ensure confidentiality. You will note that each survey has a code number on it. That is for statistical purposes so that I can group teachers and principals from the same school together. Your identity will not be shared with others.

I will be happy to answer any questions pertaining to this study before or after you have completed the surveys. Please contact me at:

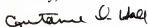
Constance A. Hall
809 NW 42nd Terrace
Gainesville, Florida 32605
(352) 376-7756
hallconnie@aol.com

If you have questions or concerns about rights of the research participants please contact the University of Florida Institutional Review Board at:

UFIRB office
Box 112250
University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida 32611-2250

Thank you for signing and dating this letter and returning it with your questionnaires as soon as possible.

Sincerely,



Constance A. Hall

I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description.

Signature of participant

Date

Approved by the
University of Florida
Institutional Review Board
(IRB 02) for use through

Dear Teachers:

My name is Constance Hall, and I am a doctoral student at the University of Florida in the Department of Educational Leadership. My faculty supervisor is Dr. James Doud.

I am writing to request your participation in my dissertation study which will explore the extent to which specific leadership behaviors and characteristics of principals relate to the development of a positive school culture. A positive school culture is considered to be one where there is a strong sense of professional community; where teachers and other school employees work together for the benefit of student and teacher growth.

This study involves the completion of two surveys. One will assess your opinion about the leadership behaviors and characteristics of your principal. The other will assess your perception of your school's professional culture. These questionnaires should take approximately 15-20 minutes of your time. You do not have to answer any question you do not wish to answer. There are no known personal risks or benefits to participating in this study. You have the right to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation in the project at any time. Unfortunately there will be no compensation provided for your time and effort other than my eternal gratitude.

Your principal has also been asked to participate in this study. Data will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Enclosed you will find a self-addressed, stamped envelope so that you can return your questionnaires directly to me. This measure is to ensure confidentiality. You will note that each survey has a code number on it. That is for statistical purposes so that I can group teachers and principals from the same school together. Your identity will not be shared with others.

I will be happy to answer any questions pertaining to this study before or after you have completed the surveys. Please contact me at:

Constance A. Hall
809 NW 42nd Terrace
Gainesville, Florida 32605
(352) 376-7756
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If you have questions or concerns about rights of the research participants please contact the University of Florida Institutional Review Board at:

UFIRB office
Box 112250
University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida 32611-2250

Thank you for signing and dating this letter and returning it with your questionnaires as soon as possible.

Sincerely,

Constance A. Hall

Constance A. Hall

I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description.

Signature of participant

Date

Approved by the
University of Florida
Institutional Review Board
(IRB 02) for use through

AUG 03 1998



UNIVERSITY OF
FLORIDA

College of Education
Department of Educational Leadership

PO Box 117049
Gainesville, FL 32611-7049
(352) 392-2391 Fax (352) 392-0038

Dear District Administrators,

Under the tutelage of my advisor, Dr. James Doud, chairperson of the Department of Educational Leadership, at the University of Florida, I have undertaken a dissertation which involves your district through the process of random selection. Knowing how many of such studies abound at the present time, I thought it was important to introduce my dissertation study to district officials in the event that principals or teachers inquire about the packets they receive from me. My dissertation will explore the extent to which specific leadership behaviors and characteristics of principals relate to the development of a positive school culture. A positive school culture is considered to be one where there is a strong sense of professional community; where teachers and other school employees work together for the benefit of student and teacher growth.

I have randomly selected 300 schools from throughout the state of Florida. Within each selected school, 15 teachers have also been randomly selected. Principals will receive a questionnaire which assesses their opinions about their own leadership behaviors and characteristics along with a letter similar to this one which has been approved by the University of Florida Institutional Review Board. Teachers will receive the same leadership questionnaire to assess their opinions of their principal's leadership behaviors and characteristics as well as a similar letter. Additionally, the teachers' packets will contain a questionnaire which assesses their opinions of the overall culture of their school.

Together, these questionnaires should take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Participants have been assured of confidentiality, and provided with a self-addressed, stamped envelope in which to return their responses.

Questions or concerns they may have should be addressed to me at:

Constance A. Hall
809 NW 42nd Terrace
Gainesville, FL 32605
(352) 376-7756
hallconnie@aol.com

Thank you for providing me the opportunity to complete research in your district.

Constance A. Hall
Constance A. Hall
Doctoral Candidate

James D. Doud
James Doud, Ph.D.
Chairperson, Department of Educational Leadership

APPENDIX B
CRC SURVEY

I. Professional Community Indicators

A. Collegiality

1. Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

a. You can count on most staff members to help out anywhere, anytime--even though it may not be part of their official assignment.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

b. Teachers in this school are continually learning and seeking new ideas.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

c. There is a great deal of cooperative effort among staff members.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

d. Staff members maintain high standards.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

e. This school seems like a big family, everyone is so close and cordial.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

B. Faculty Innovativeness

2. Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

- a. In this school, we solve problems; we don't just talk about them.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

- b. My job provides me continuing professional stimulation and growth.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

- c. In this school, I am encouraged to experiment with my teaching.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

- d. The principal is interested in innovation and new ideas.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

- e. I can get good advice from other teachers in this school when I have a teaching problem.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

C. Support for Learning

3. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements regarding your current feelings about teaching in general and your present job.

- a. I would accept almost any class or school assignment in order to keep working for this district.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

- b. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this district.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

- c. I feel that this district inspires the very best in job performance of its teachers.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

d. Often I find it difficult to agree with this district's policies on important matters relating to its teachers.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

e. I am proud to tell others that I work for this district.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

f. The district is a source of considerable dissatisfaction with my teaching job.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

II. Professional Commitment

A. Professional Commitment Index

1. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements regarding your current feelings about teaching in general and your present job.

a. I think that the stresses and disappointments involved in teaching at this school aren't really worth it.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

b. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that usually expected of teachers.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

c. If I could get a higher paying job, I'd leave teaching in a minute.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

d. In general, I really enjoy my students.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

e. I don't seem to have as much enthusiasm now as I did when I began teaching.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

f. I really love the subject I teach most frequently.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

g. I think about transferring to another school.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

h. I feel little loyalty to the teaching profession.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

III. Classroom Instruction

A. Instructional Self-Efficacy

1. On the scale below, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

a. If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

b. I feel that it's part of my responsibility to keep students from dropping out of school.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

c. If some students in my class are not doing well, I feel that I should change my approach to the subject.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

d. By trying a different teaching method, I can significantly affect a student's achievement.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

e. There is really very little I can do to insure that most of my students achieve at a high level.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

f. I am certain I am making a difference in the lives of my students.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Disagree

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

I, Constance A. Hall, was born into a military family. We traveled up and down the east and west coasts throughout my life. I have two sisters and one brother whom I see whenever possible, but not very often. The family remains close as we continue to be spread throughout the U.S.A.

Growing up in a family of musicians, I found myself as a dual special education and music therapy major at Texas Woman's University my freshman year in college. Although Texas was most enjoyable, I found myself yearning for a larger school and not as interested in music therapy as I initially anticipated. Thus, I transferred to the University of Michigan to continue my education. There I earned a Bachelor of Science in Special Education (Mental Retardation) and Elementary Education.

After a year and a half of teaching in a Virginia Beach, Virginia public school, graduate school beckoned. Through a federal grant, I earned my Master of Education in Special Education at the College of William and Mary. The purpose of the grant was to train teachers to teach seriously emotionally disturbed children. That endorsement, as well as one in learning disabilities was earned. Toward the end of the master's program, I married Ian Michael Hall.


My master's degree was put to good use as I taught in psychiatric treatment centers. And, the practice of behavior management skills came in handy when Ian and I

decided to have children. After several years of stay-at-home motherhood, I decided to go back to school for a doctoral degree in educational leadership. A new world awaits as my family prepares to move, yet again, and discover the fascination of another place and professional specialty.

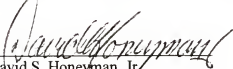
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


James L. Doud, Chair
Professor of Educational Leadership

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


David S. Honeyman, Jr.
Professor of Educational Leadership

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


David Miller
Professor of Foundations of Education

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

August, 1999


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